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PARENT EDUCATION: THE DREIKURS MODEL

by

SHARON ELAINE ROBERTSON

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Parent Education: The Dreikurs Model submitted by Sharon Elaine Robertson in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Counseling and School Psychology.

Dedicated

to my Mother

who taught me persistence and independence

and

to my Father

who taught me to care about others.

ABSTRACT

In this study, Parent Education: The Dreikurs Model, the effects of a Dreikurs parent education program were investigated in terms of maternal attitudes, expressed practices of mothers, and parent-child behaviors. Variables assessed included maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance.

From a pool of 81 mothers of kindergarten children in Edmonton, Alberta, sixty of the volunteers were selected and assigned to two treatment conditions; experimental and control. Subjects in the experimental group participated in a 10-week Dreikurs parent education program, while control subjects received delayed treatment. A Posttest-Only Control Group design was utilized. Subjects were interviewed regarding their attitudes and practices and were later observed interacting with their kindergarten children in a structured situation.

Baumrind's Parent Interview Schedule and Parent Interview Scales were used in assessing expressed child-rearing attitudes and practices. Baumrind's Home Visit Sequence Analysis was also employed in rating observations of mother-child interactions in structured situations as described by Tari.

One major finding of the study was that participants in the parent education program differed in their attitudes toward maturity demands from non-participants. Further directions for research lay in exploration of the effects of such programs on maturity demands and communication. High correlations between expressed child-rearing attitudes and practices suggested that the instruments failed to satisfactorily discriminate between these variables. Recommendations for

revision of these instruments were made. Additional suggestions for further work included focus on personality characteristics of parents using a factorial design.

With regard to the program itself, it was recommended that both parents be involved in programs of this type. Recommendations for program changes also included aspects from other programs including role-playing and practice in communication skills. Follow-up sessions with participants completing the program also appears to be important.

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CHAPTER I

THE THESIS PROBLEM

I. Introduction

Accelerated technological, environmental and societal changes occurring over the past eighty years have produced a situation in which unprecedented strains have been placed on the family system (Buckland, 1971). Whereas traditionally parents, backed by legal and religious sanctions, exercised strict authority over their children, more recent thinking has rendered this taboo. In earlier times families were able to function effectively from an autocratic basis in which relationships were characterized by the superiority of one individual or group over another. Within the family, the father served as the authority figure and while the rest of the family may not have agreed with his actions, his authority did provide them with a reasonable modicum of security. However, rapid technological advancement has led to social upheaval in which the still preferred autocratic family system is dysfunctional. As a reaction to the pressures of rapid cultural change, wives and children, particularly adolescents, demand equal rights and equal voice in decision-making.

In an attempt to adapt to the change in conditions, many families today have shifted to another extreme approach whereby children are allowed to express themselves freely so that they will not be suppressed or frustrated. This approach which Dreikurs (1952) has referred to as anarchic permissiveness has led to disintegration of the family with each individual attempting to exert his right to do as he pleases

regardless of whether or not it interferes with the rights of others (Nye & Berardo, 1973).

Faced with the fact that earlier models for family interaction are no longer appropriate, many parents have found themselves not only bewildered by change but also uncertain as to what their marital and parental roles should be. As Buckland (1972) has aptly noted:

> Many affluent middle class families function at a psychological survival level, while other families still struggle at a physical survival level in a society which has not yet established priorities in terms of human well-being. Families tend to feel. . .resistant and reactive, not having been taught any skills for the management of change. (p. 151)

In an attempt to alleviate stress within families, some researchers (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967) have focused on the type and function of communication processes which occur within dysfunctional families. The outcome has been the appearance of communication systems approaches to both marital and family therapy (Haley, 1963; Satir, 1967, 1972). Surprisingly, considerable similarity may be found between these approaches and Laing's social phenomenological approach to the family, where emphasis is placed on developing accurate verbalizations of one's experience of both self and others (Laing, 1967; Laing & Esterson, 1970).

While these approaches are primarily therapeutic in orientation, other alternatives for families in the form of educational programs have been increasing in number. Through a process of re-education, it has been assumed that many problems may be alleviated or avoided before they become severe. Thus, marriage enrichment and parent education programs, for example, have been developed to serve a primarily preventive function (Auerbach, 1968). Although it may be argued that therapy and education at times are one and the same, Brim (1959) has differentiated the two on

the basis that no attempt is made to expose, explore and work through pathology of members in an educational program. In the present work, focus has been placed on the latter type of program and more particularly on programs for parents.

In view of the multitude of sources from which parents may obtain information and advice regarding child-rearing practices, it appears to be important to clarify more fully what is meant by the term "parent education". Auerbach (1968) has attempted to distinguish between the terms "family life education" and "parent education" with parent group education being one aspect of the latter. Following an extensive survey of the field, Buckland (1971) used the term "parent education" to refer to "organized discussion groups or classes for parents in an adult-education setting, extending over a series of regularly scheduled meetings, and conducted by a trained leader" (p. 27). Elementary and secondary classes, lecture series, mass media programs, programs specifically designed for special groups of parents, and programs limited to sex education were not included. Since Buckland's definition has served to delimit the field to a level which is consistent with the scope of the present work, her definition has been adopted and used hereafter when referring to the term "parent education".

On examining specific parent education programs, Buckland (1971) concluded that existing programs are so diverse in nature that "no matrix classification can do them justice" (p. 65). As with many forms of therapy, some parent education programs are theoretically based with goals and procedures varying from one theory to another. Thus, for example, Gordon's (1970) Parent Effectiveness Training program has

emerged from Rogers' client-centered therapy where emphasis is placed on the development of communication skills. Similarly, the Dreikurs model grew out of Adlerian theory while programs based on Becker's (1971a) Parents are Teachers have been essentially behavioral in orientation. On the other hand, some programs have consisted of guided group discussions where "the specific subject matter arises primarily with the parents themselves, from their questions, their expressed concerns, their past and current experience, and their own knowledge. There is no formal presentation made to the group, no set curriculum" (Crow, 1967, p. 161). On reviewing the literature on parent programs, Buckland (1971) attempted to formulate a comprehensive theory of parent education. While her work has certainly made a significant contribution to the field, many questions regarding the effectiveness of current programs have remained unanswered.

A review of the literature in this area has revealed a paucity of research studies and where such investigations have been conducted, they have been characterized by some inherent difficulties. In fact, Hereford (1963) aptly summarized the present state of affairs when he stated:

> Programs are considered to be effective and successful if they are well-attended or if a majority of the participants fill out a questionnaire about the program in a positive vein. Evaluative research is time-consuming and expensive: yet the demand by parents for educational services is so strong that the tendency has been to go ahead and meet the demand in any way possible, regardless of the dearth of knowledge concerning the effectiveness of the techniques used. (p. 34)

The situation described by Hereford is exemplified in the increasing appearance of parent study groups based on Adlerian theory.

In his guides for parents, Dreikurs (Dreikurs, 1958; Dreikurs & Grey, 1968a, 1968b; Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964) has stressed that traditional methods of child-rearing are obsolete and that development of a democratic atmosphere based upon equality, encouragement, responsibility and respect for the rights of others is necessary in order to enable the child to become both independent and socially responsible. The growing popularity of the approach can be seen in the increasing number of books and articles being published for the interested counselor, parent and teacher; with Dreikurs, Dinkmeyer and Christensen being among the leading exponents. The model has even been extended to provide training for parents themselves who wish to become group leaders. Although provision is usually made for parents to evaluate particular programs, such evaluations tend to be highly subjective. Furthermore, little stress has been placed on more controlled studies as evidenced by the paucity of published research using this approach. Since some form of objective evaluation has been long overdue, the Dreikurs model of parent education was examined in the present work.

II. The Problem

A review of recent research in the area has revealed that the primary method of assessing the effectiveness of parent education programs has been a parent attitude questionnaire (Endres & Evans, 1968; Garcia, 1971; Hereford, 1963; Larson, 1972) in combination with some other measure including parent's ratings of children's behavior (Platt, 1971), children's ratings of parent behavior (Lillibridge, 1972; Peterson, 1970; Stearn, 1970), changes in children's grade point average (Larson, 1972), parent interviews by teachers and changes in children's

self-concept (Endres & Evans, 1968). As Mannino, Kisielewski, Kimbro and Morgenstern (1968) have pointed out, there are inherent difficulties in linking self-expressed parent attitude change with children's behavior and in associating attitude change with children's perceptions of parent behavior. Consequently, Buckland (1971) has called for more evaluative studies in which parent-child interactions are actually observed.

Baumrind (1967) conducted a study which has had particular relevance for the present work. In her study, information regarding child-rearing attitudes, practices and behavior was gained by interviewing parents and by observing parent-child interactions. The dimensions assessed were parental control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance. While previous work in parent education has assessed attitude changes, there has been little attempt to assess the relationship between attitudes and actual behavior on the same dimensions.

Therefore, in the present investigation, the Dreikurs model of parent education was examined in an attempt to obtain objective information on the effects of the program in terms of maternal attitudes toward child-rearing, actual practices and behavior. More specifically, one objective was to compare the child-rearing attitudes, practices and behaviors of mothers who participated in a Dreikurs parent study group with those of mothers who received no such training. A second purpose was to determine the relationship between expressed child-rearing attitudes, practices and actual behaviors of mothers who participated in a Dreikurs program.

III. Overview

While the purpose of the present investigation has been briefly introduced in Chapter I, the remainder of the thesis contains more detailed information regarding the Dreikurs program and the research aspect of the current work. In particular, the theoretical framework in the form of Adlerian theory and the Dreikurs model of parent education has been described in Chapter II. Chapter II also contains a review of related literature including other parent education programs, research on parent education, and relevant research on child-rearing practices. The particular methodology, hypotheses and definitions employed in the current investigation have been presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV contains the findings and conclusions while a discussion of results with implications for further work follows in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED LITERATURE

I. Theoretical Framework

Adlerian Theory

The model of parent education employed in the present investigation was that proposed by Rudolph Dreikurs. While the Dreikurs approach has tended to be very practical in its suggestions for parents, the model itself has its theoretical roots in the Individual Psychology of Alfred Adler. Consequently, an examination of Adler's theory seems warranted.

Theory of Motivation. According to Mosak and Dreikurs (1973), Adlerian or Individual Psychology may be described as a social, teleological, phenomenological, holistic, ideographic and humanistic theory. One of the most basic tenets arising from its organismic, holistic position is the existence of a unitary theory of motivation. As an organism, a unified whole, the individual is not determined by various drives or motives, but there is one dynamic force of which all others are only partial or subsidiary aspects. This derives from the growth and forward movement of life itself. It is a general forward striving which is inherent in man and which carries each individual from one stage of development to the next higher stage. The form which this life force takes has variously been described by Adler as the striving for superiority, success, overcoming, completion, perfection, an upward striving, a coercion to carry out a better adaptation, "an innate something which belongs to life" (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956).

As Ansbacher (Adler, 1929/1964) has pointed out, the recognition of one master motive has been common to all organismic psychologies since Adler. Some of the terms which have been chosen by recent writers have included self-actualization, self-expansion, self-consistency, competence.

The guiding force which gives direction to man's striving for superiority is his degree of social interest. According to Dreikurs (1933/1950), what Adler has referred to as "social feeling" manifests itself in the person who is aware of having something in common with others and of being one of them. It has also been described as man's capacity for cooperation. Social feeling is not considered to be inborn but rather exists as an innate potentiality which must be consciously developed. Since man's survival is dependent upon his ability to live in harmony with others, cooperation and interest in others are considered to be essential aspects of his functioning. In fact, man's ability to cooperate with others and to help the group to which he belongs in its evolution toward a more perfect form of social living may serve as a normative ideal. As such, it constitutes a criterion of positive mental health (Adler, 1933/1970; Dreikurs, 1971). As Adler (1958) has stated,

> Life means to contribute to the whole. . .
> The man who meets the problem of human life
> successfully acts as if he recognized, fully
> and spontaneously that the meaning of life is
> interest in others and cooperation. (p. 9)

It remains the task of the family and of society at large to provide the child with experiences which will lead to the actual development of this potentiality (Adler, 1929/1964).

From the first day of life, the child is imbedded in a social

context to which he must relate in order to have his particular needs satisfied. The child is totally dependent upon others for his security and survival. By providing a feeling of belonging, cooperation with the mother and eventually with others is developed. At the same time, the child's feeling of inferiority in relation to others and to his environment is diminished (Adler, 1930b/1963).

Adler has postulated that the experience of inferiority and the need to overcome it is universal to man. In comparison with his goal of perfection, the individual always experiences a sense of incompletion or imperfection and hence, feels inferior. Such feelings are not considered to be a sign of abnormality but rather the cause of all improvement in man's lot. They are the outgrowth of an impeded striving for success making Adler's theory very similar to Maslow's (1968) concept of growth motivation. As Hall and Lindzey (1970) have aptly summarized, man is "pushed by the need to overcome his inferiority and pulled by the desire to be superior" (p. 124).

It is the degree to which the individual's social interest has been developed that determines the direction in which his inferiority feelings take him. In other words, if the individual has developed a high degree of social interest, when faced with a problem, he will focus upon the situation at hand. His striving will be in the direction of a positive outcome, towards competence. On the other hand, if social interest is poorly developed, the individual has not acquired an adequate feeling of belonging. In this case, his inferiority feelings predominate and he will strive for superiority at the expense of others. His behavior is marked by lack of cooperation and disharmony (Adler, 1927/1954; Dreikurs, 1973b).

Guiding Fiction and the Life Style. During the early years the developing child encounters many novel situations with which he has not as yet been prepared to cope. In an attempt to overcome his present deficiencies and difficulties, he continually observes, evaluates and interprets his environment. Gradually he develops a scheme of reference which enables him to organize experience, to understand it, predict it and control it. However, since many of his perceptions and interpretations are faulty, the convictions he derives from them are also inaccurate. The individual, therefore, adapts not to reality but to the picture he has formed of reality. Furthermore, he goes through life acting "as if" this picture were true (Mosak & Dreikurs, 1973; Way, 1956).

In accordance with Vaihinger's (1924/1965) philosophy, such guiding fictions serve as working hypotheses which can be adapted as a basis for action. However, as Way (1950) has pointed out, the individual's experiences are limited by the basic and sometimes faulty assumptions he makes. While initially the child is fairly flexible in abandoning what is false in his outlook, his approach to life gradually becomes more set in a pattern which is referred to as the "life style". As Allen (1971) has stated, "Any human being's behavior stems from his own particular conception of the nature of life, its meaning, its possibilities and dangers, and from his appraisal of himself, his assets and liabilities" (p. 5). From the combination of these two sets of beliefs come the rules by which a person will live or his life style. Dreikurs (1973b) and Mosak (1971) have described a number of life styles including "the baby", "the hero", "the martyr" and "the passive tyrant".

By the end of the fifth year, a child's personality has more or

less crystallized. His orientation towards the three tasks of life which include communal life, work and love have largely been formulated through the family atmosphere and through the experience of coping with parents and siblings. If failure in adaptive training occurs such as through pampering or neglect, the child's life style is affected. It is for this reason that early training is important (Adler, 1930a, 1930b/1963).

Family Influences. In a number of his writings, Adler (1923/1964, 1930b/1963, 1958) has emphasized the influence of the mother upon the child's potentialities. In fact, Adler (1958) went so far as to insist that in tracing back cases of failure in life, it was almost always discovered that the mother did not fulfill her functions properly. In other words, she failed to give the child the completest possible experience of trust and fellowship and to broaden it into normal conceptions of society, of work and of love (Way, 1956). It appears that Adler's main emphasis lay on the role of the mother because it was with her that the child initially had the most contact. The role of the father was not negated but rather considered to be similar to the mother's in developing social interest.

On considering the influence of the family, Adler distinguished three types of children in whom appropriate training may not occur; those with defective organs, those who are pampered and those who are neglected. Accordingly, children with defective organs may adopt an attitude of despair and bitterness. They may unconsciously exaggerate their difficulties, demand an extraordinary amount of attention, and avoid difficulties and responsibilities. In a similar vein, the pampered or spoiled child is granted prominence without actually

working to deserve it. He is given no opportunity to accomplish on his own and is robbed of his independence. On the other hand, the neglected child is one who has never found a trustworthy other person and consequently has had no experience of love or cooperation. When confronted with problems, he tends to over-rate their difficulty and to under-rate his own capacity to meet them successfully. Thus, he tends to be suspicious and unable to trust himself (Adler, 1923/1964, 1927/1954; Way, 1956).

In all three cases outlined previously, children do not develop an attitude which is conducive to meeting life's demands or to solving difficulties. It should be noted that while Adler was sympathetic to the idea that the child needs support and encouragement, he was careful to point out that it must not interfere with the child's own self-training.

One of the strongest environmental influences on the growing child consists of his ordinal position within the family as well as the already-existing family dynamics which are subject to change with the addition of each child. This outer environment is often referred to as the "family constellation". According to Adler (1923/1964), no two children born into the same family ever grow up in an identical situation. There exists a fundamental difference in the experience of the first-born as contrasted with the second, last-born or only child as well as in the experience of one girl among a number of boys or vice-versa. For example, the first-born child initially enjoys the full attention of his parents without having to share with others. Upon the arrival of a second child, the first-born is no longer the center of attention in his position as the baby but must re-establish himself as

the older of two children. In contrast to this, the second-born always has before him someone who is generally more competent than he is. Throughout his life, he may continually endeavour to surpass the older child. Similarly, the last born child is always surrounded by others who are more competent than himself and may be in the position where older children continually attend to him. In his position as "the baby", he may learn to attract attention from others without really having to give in return. The concept of the family constellation has been elaborated more fully in an article by Pepper (1971) (see Appendix A). It should be noted that while the terms "birth order" (Pepper, 1971) and "ordinal position" (Shulman, 1962) have at times been equated with the family constellation, Mosak and Dreikurs (1973) have been careful to point out that the terms are not synonomous. While the child's ordinal position is important, the meaning he attaches to it must be understood in the context of his own particular family.

To summarize, the combination of Vaihinger's concept of fictions with that of a final goal makes Adler's theory subjective, phenomenological and teleological in orientation. Vaihinger's concept of fiction comes close to what would presently be referred to as the subjective or personal frame of reference or the phenomenal field (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Furthermore, man is considered to be relatively free in the determination of his behavior. While both heredity and environment do have a place in the development of character traits, their role is considered to be relatively unimportant as compared to the meaning that man attaches to the events which occur to him (Dreikurs, 1973a). Adler's position then becomes one of "soft" determinism (Bieliauskas, 1973) and his theory is basically cognitive

in nature (Dreikurs, 1971; Mosak & Dreikurs, 1973). However, since it is during the early years that the child's orientation towards life is gradually formulated, it is at that time that environmental factors play a critical role in the development of the personality. For this reason, parental education in appropriate training methods is recommended.

Dreikurs' Adaptation of Adler in Building a Model for Parent Education

Dreikurs' Attitudes Regarding Child-Rearing. Following in Adler's footsteps, Dreikurs (1948a, 1952, 1959b), Dreikurs and Grey (1968a, 1968b) and Dreikurs and Soltz (1964) have emphasized that traditional methods of child-rearing are obsolete. As an alternative to both extreme authoritarianism and extreme permissiveness, both of which are considered to be dysfunctional, Dreikurs has suggested that development of a democratic atmosphere based upon equality and respect for the rights of others is necessary. While parents may not be able to prevent a child from doing whatever he is physically capable of doing, they can teach him that every act has a consequence for which he is responsible. Within such a family, children learn how to manage their own affairs and participate in the democratic process. At the same time, they learn to deal more effectively with the social revolution which is going on around them. To do this, parents need to learn new methods to guide and educate their children into democratic social living.

In accordance with Adlerian theory, Dreikurs (1933/1950, 1966) has pointed out that all human behavior is purposive and that one of the child's strongest motivations is his desire to belong. His security

or lack of it depends upon his feeling of belonging within a group which initially consists of his family. Furthermore, each child has a number of needs which must be met in order to provide inner psychological stability. These include the need to be loved and accepted, to be secure and relatively free of threat, to belong, to identify himself as part of a group, to be approved and recognized for the way in which he functions and to move toward independence, responsibility and decision-making (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1973).

Satisfaction of these needs enables the child to move towards independence and socially responsible behavior which is characteristic of the healthy person. Failure to satisfy these needs stimulates misbehavior. A child who believes himself to be worthwhile and useful has no need to develop destructive patterns. If he has self-confidence and self-respect, he recognizes that he is responsible for himself and that he must either accept the consequences of his behavior or change the behavior (Dreikurs, 1948b).

Through a process of trial and error, the child learns which behaviors will provide him with a feeling of belonging and which ones will not. Often he makes errors in interpreting what he observes and draws incorrect conclusions regarding his behavior. When basic needs are not met and inaccurate interpretations are made, the child may develop mistaken goals and choose undesirable ways of finding his place within the family.

Dreikurs (1957) has identified four goals for a child's disturbing behavior: the desire for undue attention or attention-getting mechanism (AGM), the struggle for power and superiority, the desire for retaliation and revenge and the need to demonstrate real or

imagined inadequacy. In pursuing one or more of these goals, disturbing children may be either active or passive and as in the case of attention getting, they may use constructive or destructive methods. If the child feels accepted, he will use constructive methods while destructive acts are considered to be an expression of antagonism. On the other hand, basic patterns of activity or passivity are established in early infancy and are based on either prenatal experiences and early training or innate predispositions. While the degree of activity often remains unchanged, a child may become more antagonistic and rebellious through discouraging experiences.

The combination of the two pairs of factors (activity-passivity, constructiveness-destructiveness) produces four possible behavior patterns:

1. Active-constructive as exemplified by the extreme ambition of the first in the class and the helpfulness displayed by the teacher's pet.
2. Active-destructive as illustrated by the clown, bully, or impertinent and defiant rebel.
3. Passive-constructive as seen in those who use charm and adoration to receive special attention and favor without doing anything themselves.
4. Passive-destructive as revealed by laziness and stubbornness.

Each of these behavior patterns has been elaborated upon more fully by both Dreikurs (1948b) and Bullard (see Appendix A). The patterns have also been summarized by Dreikurs (1957) and Dreikurs, Grunwald and Pepper (1971) and have been shown in Table 1 with deteriorating sequences being identified as a, b, and c. It should be

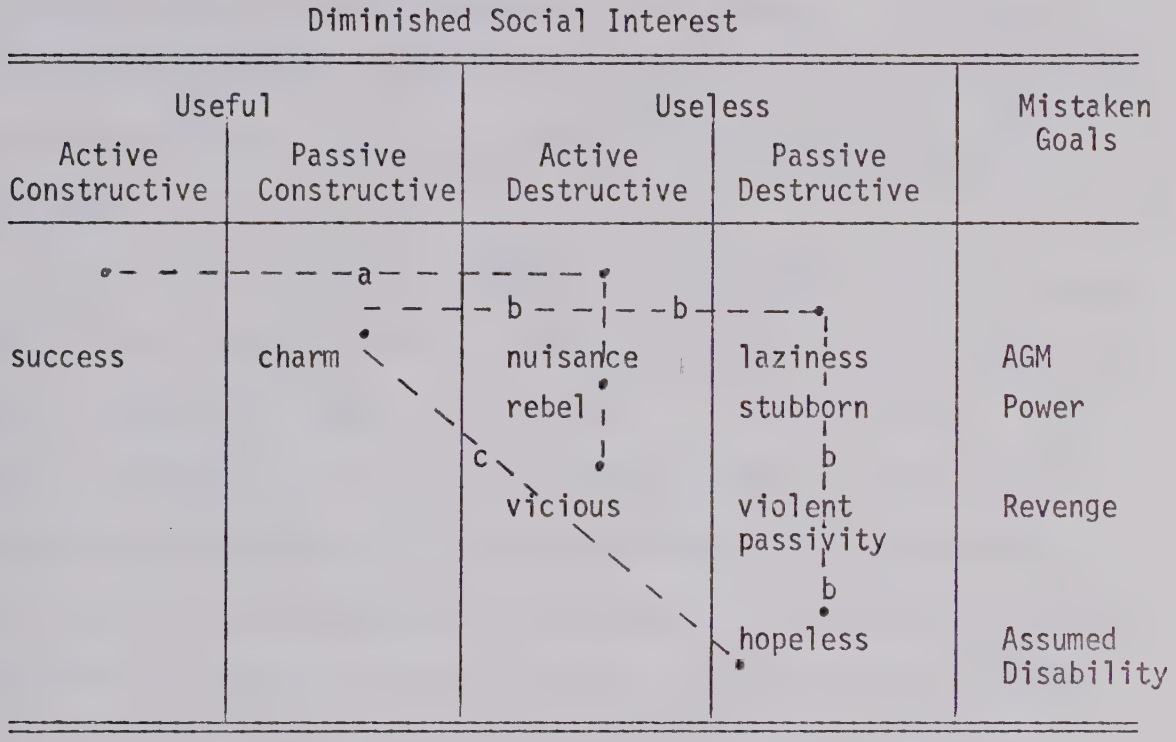
noted that attention getting is the only goal which is reached by all four behavior patterns. Power and revenge are obtained through active- and passive-destructive methods while a display of inadequacy can use only passive-destructive methods. The most frequent deteriorating sequence is that from active-constructive AGM to active-destructive AGM to active-destructive power to active-destructive revenge (line a). Another frequent sequence is that of passive-constructive AGM, passive-destructive AGM and assumed disability (line b). In most cases of this type, there is a passive demonstration of power but not of revenge before an inability is displayed. A final deteriorating sequence is that which occurs when passive-constructive behavior turns directly into an open display of inability (line c). While deterioration appears to follow particular sequences, according to Dreikurs, this is not the same for improvement. By convincing a child that he is liked and can be useful, even the most disturbed child may become adequately adjusted. Techniques for helping parents identify particular goals of disruptive behavior as well as possible corrective measures have been outlined by N. Pearcy (see Appendix A).

In encouraging parents to understand their children, a focus is not only placed on the goals of misbehavior but an attempt is also made to develop an awareness of the dynamics which may be operating in parent-child-sibling relationships. Each relationship is considered to be unique in itself and competition between children is expressed in the fundamental differences in roles they play within the family. Prevalent methods of training are important in that they affect the manner in which the child perceives his place in the family.

While the family constellation describes the interaction

TABLE 1

Behavior Patterns, Mistaken Goals and Deteriorating Sequences



between members of the family, a characteristic pattern which is established by parents and presented to their children as a standard for social living also exists. Typical family atmospheres have been described by Dewey (1971) and may be exemplified by authoritarian, inconsistent, competitive, and materialistic climates.

Aside from providing parents with information which may assist them in understanding their child's behavior, Dreikurs (1959a), Dreikurs and Grey (1968b), and Dreikurs and Soltz (1964) have also identified some characteristic child-rearing methods which produce more democratic relationships within families. Through procedures such as refraining from doing for the child what he can do for himself and allowing him to share in the responsibilities of the household, the parent not only

stimulates independence but also provides encouragement at the same time. More open communication is fostered by developing listening skills, withdrawing from conflict, eliminating criticism, and allowing for mutual problem-solving through the family council. Furthermore, the power differential in disciplinary measures is minimized through the use of natural and logical consequences as opposed to reward and punishment.

According to Buckland (1971), issues relating to discipline have been of prime concern to parents enrolled in parent education programs. It would appear that further clarification of Dreikurs' ideas in this area is warranted. As Dinkmeyer (1965) has pointed out, the type of disciplinary relationship which Dreikurs advocated was one which was educative rather than punitive in orientation. By allowing a child to experience the natural consequences of his own behavior, he learns to understand the natural results of his behavior so that he is able to function effectively on his own. Furthermore, because there is little parental involvement, there is also little justification for the development of resentments between parent and child (Bullard, 1973). Natural consequences then, have the advantage of being appropriate no matter what goal the child may be attempting to achieve. On the other hand, in some situations such as those involving danger or emergency, the parent cannot allow the child the freedom to experience the consequences of his behavior. In these cases, the parent may arrange consequences which are logically related to the misbehavior so that the child again experiences the reality of the social order as opposed to the power of personal authority. Since logical consequences result from violation of man-made rules or situations, their enforcement may

be associated with a particular individual or group. As a result, they readily become punitive in nature and should never be instituted when a power struggle is underway (Dreikurs, 1971; Dreikurs & Grey, 1968a; Grey, 1972, 1974; Spiel, 1962).

The type of disciplinary relationship proposed by Dreikurs, then, was one which enabled the child to discover orderliness and to develop self-discipline. Such discipline in the family facilitates the development of family councils where the child participates in the formulation of rules which govern his behavior (Dinkmeyer, 1965; Dreikurs, Gould & Corsini, 1974).

In summary, Dreikurs has emphasized that traditional authoritarian methods of child-rearing involving pressure, domination, demands, impositions and punishment are obsolete. Furthermore, a more permissive approach leads to lack of respect for the rights of others and little self-discipline. By developing democratic relationships based upon equality, encouragement, mutual respect and responsibility, the parent teaches the child to become independent and socially responsible.

Dreikurs Parent Study Groups. Since both Adler and Dreikurs emphasized the importance of interpersonal dynamics in the development of personality, their approach to both prevention and therapy focused on the significant adults in the child's life both at home and at school. In an effort to coordinate services among counsellors, parents and teachers, community child guidance clinics and parent-teacher education centers have been established in a number of cities (Dreikurs, Corsini, Lowe & Sonstegaard, 1959; Hillman, 1968). More recently, Christensen (1969) and Dinkmeyer (1968, 1971) have adapted this approach to serve as a model for developmental guidance in the elementary school.

Corrective measures are provided through individual, group, and family counseling while the preventive nature of the program is emphasized through teacher, child, and parent education. Parent groups not only provide the counselor with the opportunity to reach a large number of parents; they also enable him to deal with the family milieu.

Parent education programs based on Dreikurs' ideas regarding child-rearing generally take the form of study groups which meet for two hours each week over a period of eight to ten weeks. According to Soltz (1967), the goal of such groups is "to understand the purpose of children's misbehavior, to become aware of the actual meaning of 'mutual respect', and to gain skill in democratic approaches for coping with the daily problems of living together as equals" (p. 8). Concepts and approaches presented in Children: The Challenge (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964) serve as a basis for discussion with emphasis being placed on relating the principles to the parents' own family situation. Specific chapters of the text along with additional reading and practice exercises are usually assigned each week and reports of efforts to apply particular principles at home serve as part of the discussion. Parents are encouraged to mutually examine problems, concepts and values and to share in stimulation and encouragement. In some programs, an interview with a family is conducted by the leaders, first with the parents and then with the children for analysis of family dynamics and suggestions for modification of behavior (Buckland, 1971).

Since one of the important variables in parent education of this type is the effect of group interaction, the role of the leader and the function of group process is salient. According to Soltz (1967), the leader of a parent study group does not pose as a psychological

expert or authority nor does he attempt to teach or lecture. His function is to lead the discussion and to encourage the application of new approaches to the problems of raising children. Group mechanisms such as acceptance, universalization, feedback and reality testing facilitate the development of a cohesive group that focuses on specific child-training situations, parent attitudes and procedures (Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1971). In order to provide effective interaction, limitation of the group size to approximately ten members is recommended.

In summary, Dreikurs parent study groups may be viewed as one aspect of a total guidance program. The model for parent education is one of discussion based on relevant readings and practical application of principles related to child-management.

II. Related Literature

Other Parent Education Programs

While Adler and Dreikurs both emphasized the critical role played by the family in the life of the young child and set the stage for the development of parent study groups, they were by no means alone in their attempts to reach parents. According to Brim (1959), educational programs for parents have existed in the United States for as long as there have been records and there has been an uninterrupted expansion of such programs since about 1880. In one of the earliest documented programs begun by the Child Study Association of America (Gruenberg, 1927), outlines for parents included topics such as aspects of discipline, impulses and activities, social environment, organic foundations and individual variations. In Canada, the St. George's School for Child Study which was founded in 1925 became involved in

parent education as well and later prepared outlines for discussion groups along with bibliographies for parents and leaders ("Outlines for parent education groups", 1935; Stern, 1960). From these beginnings, numerous other programs varying in theoretical orientation, content and methods have emerged. A closer consideration of these programs which all employ the discussion group method may give some indication of the issues which still characterize the field.

Unstructured Programs. Based on the assumption that responsibility for the educational process must rest with the learner, Hereford (1963) trained non-professionals to serve as leaders in what might be considered to be one of the more unstructured programs. Since group members were given the responsibility for supplying the content of the program as well as for deciding on the manner in which the content was to be treated, no plan of study, agenda, or textbook was used. Stimulus films were employed but parents were free to discuss any topic which was of concern to them as long as it was within the broad area of parent child relations. According to Hereford, parents were free to accept or reject solutions offered by the group. Group size was limited to fifteen members who met for six sessions. The role of the group leader was that of a moderator who attempted to facilitate the processes of the group without guiding or directing members to a certain position or point of view. In contrast with other programs, the leader was not expected to answer questions or provide content for discussion.

Auerbach (1968) has described another fairly unstructured program developed by the Child Study Association of America. The program aims "to help parents become more familiar with basic concepts

of child growth and development and parent-child-family interaction from a dynamic point of view; to recognize some of the crisis points in different stages of the normal family cycle; to clarify the parents' own role and those of their children within the family and the community; and to enlarge their understanding of the complexities of their everyday situations so that they will have a wider background against which to make choices" (Auerbach, 1968, p. 4). Here again, no set curriculum is provided but parents are expected to assume major responsibility for establishing content under the leadership of a trained professional. Group interaction is considered to be basic to the learning experience. However, additional information may be obtained from the leader or from outside resources with the idea that members may gradually take a position of their own. Groups usually consist of approximately fifteen members who meet together for a series of eight to twelve sessions. Leaders come from many disciplines including education, social work and nursing. Although membership is usually heterogeneous, groups for parents of children with physical handicaps and chronic illnesses are frequently organized. Although the content may differ, all of these groups are based on the same general concepts and follow the same general group procedure.

Another variation of the group approach has been described by Pickarts and Fargo (1971) who believe that the primary long range goal of parent education must be to make the parent role-conscious and autonomous. Programming focuses on the processes of learning and valuing in an effort to help parents clarify what they want the child to learn and to provide them with methods to achieve greater competence in the parental teaching role. Discussion groups meet for six to twelve

weeks but may last for the entire school year. The sessions begin with the teacher presenting background material relevant to general interest. This material is later discussed and evaluated by the group. Audio-visual aids, book reviews, role playing, guest speakers, panel discussions, workshops and field trips may form part of the program. While the sessions are not entirely unstructured, they are also not completely didactic or information-giving. Pickarts and Fargo (1971) have stressed that for maximum individual learning, a knowledgeable educator skilled in group process is needed to fill the role of group leader. While programs are offered for parents of elementary school children and adolescents, the most popular one is that for mothers of pre-school children where emphasis is placed on the development of observation skills. For up to three years, mothers spend one morning each week in the pre-school observing the child and keeping written records of his activities. The latter half of the morning is spent in discussing the records in a group. Additional material on topics such as the growth and development of the pre-school child, family relationships and children's learning is introduced by the teacher at that time.

At the opposite end of the continuum in terms of structure is a program developed by Kawin (1963a, 1963b). Six topics including feelings of security and adequacy, understanding of self and others, democratic values and goals, problem-solving attitudes and methods, self-discipline, responsibility and freedom, and constructive attitudes toward changes form the basis for discussion. The program follows a carefully prepared study-guide based on these concepts along with profiles of children from infancy to five, from five to nine, from nine

to thirteen, and adolescents.

Communications Programs. A number of other programs which vary a great deal in the degree of structure imposed have emphasized the development of communication skills between parent and child (Benson, Berger, & Mease, 1973; Crawford, 1972; Ginott, 1961; Gordon, 1970; Green, 1974a, 1974b; Harris, 1967). In a highly unstructured program, Ginott (1961) has attempted to improve parent-child relations by sensitizing parents to children's feelings and by promoting understanding of the latent meaning of children's behavior. Focus is also placed on finding methods that enable children to express negative feelings in non-destructive ways. Groups consist of ten to twelve mothers who attend ninety-minute sessions once each week for a period of fifteen weeks. Separate groups are held for mothers of pre-school children, elementary school children and adolescents in an effort to increase group identification. The leader does not serve as a teacher or authority figure but continually focuses questions on parent-child relations.

Probably the most well-known of the programs emphasizing communication skills is Gordon's (1970) Parent Effectiveness Training (P.E.T.). Arising out of non-directive, client-centered therapy, the focus of this program is on the development of better interpersonal relationships between parent and child by training parents to have a "helping relationship" with their children. Emphasis is also placed on learning to resolve conflicts constructively in order to facilitate the child's development towards independence, self-direction, and cooperation. The program consists of eight three-hour training sessions and is limited to twenty-five participants. Through lectures, role-

playing, discussion and practice, parents learn various communication skills. These include: (1) active listening - the parent learns to reflect back what the child is trying to communicate about his problem in a way that facilitates the child's growth; (2) "I" messages - the parent learns to communicate personal feelings when the problem is his, rather than placing the blame on the child and; (3) mutual problem solving - both parent and child are actively engaged in working out conflicts so that a solution which is satisfactory to both is reached. The program also focuses on the problems of using power in the parent-child relationship and on assessment and modification of parent values. Gordon has stated that this approach offers an alternative to authoritarianism (cases in which parents use power and authority to settle conflicts in the family) and permissiveness (cases in which parents are excessively lenient, giving in to the child's needs at the expense of satisfying their own).

Another communications program based on Berne's (1964) theory of Transactional Analysis has been briefly described by Harris (1967). Here, the goal is to provide parents with some means of helping their children develop an internalized Adult which will enable them to cope with societal changes. It is assumed that through experience of various interpersonal transactions, one may develop one of four life positions with respect to oneself and others. These positions are:

1. I'm not OK - You're not OK
2. I'm not OK - You're OK
3. I'm OK - You're not OK
4. I'm OK - You're OK (Harris, 1967, p. 66)

While positions are developed at an early age, they may still be modified with training. In the group, parents learn to identify

transactions with the goal of establishing the fourth pattern in relationships with their children.

More recently, Benson, Berger and Mease (1973) have outlined a program for parents based on Satir's (1967) communications systems model. In this program, emphasis is placed on the following components: facilitative listening, goal setting, identification of parent styles, sending negative feelings, sending positive feelings, systems analysis skills, creative problem-solving and family rules. Experiential learning activities based upon these components were structured into a seven-evening program. A parent handbook follows the content presented in each unit and provides parents with reinforcing activities to help integrate concepts experienced in the sessions.

Behavioristic Programs. An alternative to the very unstructured parent education programs described earlier as well as to those which focus on communication between parent and child is provided by those who adhere to a more behavioristic orientation. As Patterson (1971a) and Tavormina (1974) have noted, many attempts have been made to train parents to become behavior modifiers. However, in most of the studies reported in the literature parents are trained individually or in pairs to deal with abnormal or deviant problems (Cone & Sloop, 1974). While Patterson (1971b) and Patterson and Gullion (1968) have attempted to outline operant principles for parents, several structured programs have also been developed (Becker, 1971a, 1971b; Valett, 1969). In both Becker's and Valett's programs, attempts have been made to teach parents to observe and record their child's behavior as well as to apply appropriate consequences to change undesirable behaviors and to strengthen desirable ones. One fundamental difference between the two

approaches lies in the focus which is placed on parental values with Valett attempting to integrate value issues as part of his program.

More recently, a number of programs (Crawford, 1972; Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1973; Green, 1974a, 1974b) which represent combinations of approaches described earlier have appeared. Both Crawford (1972) and Dinkmeyer and McKay (1973) have attempted to integrate Dreikurs' ideas regarding parent education with those of Gordon while Green (1974a, 1974b) has included some aspects of behavior modification as well. In his "Positive Parenting" program, Green (1974a, 1974b) has focused on six major aspects of parent-child relationships, one for each of the six weekly sessions. Topics for the sessions include alternatives to authoritarianism and permissiveness, punishment, discipline and logical consequences, effective listening, sending "I" messages, productive problem solving, and values as related to the parent-child relationship. A lecture-role play-discussion type of program has been proposed with the balance being determined by the leader. A handbook has been provided for leaders and contains a number of suggestions for stimulating discussion but always around lecture material.

To summarize, numerous approaches to parent education have been described. While the objective of some programs has been to improve the role performance of parents, more recent approaches appear to be directed toward improving family interactions to meet the growth needs of both parent and child. A consideration of value issues is central in some groups while in others this area is almost neglected. Furthermore, some programs adhere to a particular theoretical orientation while others appear to be based mostly on the concerns and ideas of parents. The

function and training of the group leader is also variable. Few guidelines for selection of participants have been given and wide variations still exist in terms of the degree of structure, length of sessions, number of sessions and size of groups. Furthermore, in some programs lecture, role-play and discussion methods are all employed while in others, the lecture approach is considered to be most undesirable.

Research on Parent Education

Despite the increasing appearance of programs for parents, a review of the literature has revealed that few well-designed evaluative studies of such programs have been conducted. In fact, on examining studies on education for child-rearing, Brim (1959) cited only two controlled studies of group programs of the type to be used in the present investigation. Since that time, further studies have been conducted but methodological difficulties still persist. A closer examination of relevant research may not only give some indication of its relative paucity but may also reveal some of the problems with which researchers are faced.

Unstructured Programs. In one of the investigations cited by Brim (1959), Shapiro (1956) attempted to assess the effect of group discussion on child-rearing attitudes. Volunteer subjects were matched on factors such as occupation, education, religion, age and sex and assigned to experimental and control groups with the experimenter serving as discussion leader. The instruments used to assess changes included a questionnaire based on an earlier instrument developed by Shoben (1949) with only face validity and a joint rating by two staff

members who knew the families and also knew which subjects were in each group. Pre- and post-test data were obtained on the questionnaire and ratings were made between the third and fourth meetings as well as when the program was completed. Results of the study indicated that members of the experimental group modified their child-rearing attitudes in the predicted direction to a statistically significant degree on both measures with high attenders changing to the greatest extent. According to Shapiro (1956), the study was limited through self-selection of the sample, inadequate validation of the questionnaire, use of a questionnaire as a method of measuring complex attitudes, inability to conduct interviews as a supplemental rating procedure, and lack of generizability of the limited sample (N=25 in each group). A consideration of later studies may reveal that many of these methodological problems are not limited to Shapiro's investigation.

Auerbach (1968) has described a study based upon the general procedures developed by the Child Study Association of America in which parents devised their own curriculum. Experimental (N=16) and control (N=12) groups were established by random assignment with all subjects being pre- and post-tested on a "number of standard attitude and information inventories" (Auerbach, 1968, p. 250). Auerbach has explained that a lack of significant findings may have been due to the small sample sizes or equivalent motivation to change in both groups. Changes may also have occurred on variables other than those measured, again suggesting that careful selection of criteria is important.

Buckland (1971) has described an investigation by Hereford (1963) as the only major experimental study of the effects of parent education discussion groups reported between 1960 and 1970. In a four-year project

involving 775 families, Hereford used a four group pre-test post-test randomized design with the three control groups being lecture, non-attendant and random. Measurements included a structured interview with all parents, sociometric evaluations, ratings of children by teachers, and a parent attitude survey. The latter instrument was developed in part from the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (Schaeffer & Bell, 1958). Results indicated that children of parents who attended the discussion meetings improved significantly more in terms of the sociometric ratings by peers than did children of parents in the control groups, but not according to teachers' ratings. Parents in the experimental groups showed significantly greater change in attitude as measured by the Parent Attitude Survey and in attitudes and behavior as shown in their responses to the parent interview. Since behavior changes were self-reported rather than observed, the actual behavioral change within the family may be questioned. It is also noteworthy that pre-test findings using the Parent Attitude Survey revealed that parental attitudes appeared to vary as a function of the age of the children and socioeconomic level suggesting that these variables should be controlled in research designs using this instrument.

The Kawin Program. More recently, Endres and Evans (1968) attempted to assess the effects of the parent education program developed by Kawin (1963a, 1963b) in terms of the knowledge, attitudes and overt behavior of parents and the self-concepts of their children. Three randomized groups of fourth grade children (N=90) and their respective parents comprised the experimental (N=10), placebo (N=5) and control (N=7) groups. A randomized post-test only design was used with instruments including the Parent Education Evaluation Instrument

(a test of factual information outlined in the Kawin program), the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) and the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale. Two facts of overt parent-child interpersonal relationships were considered: parents' conversations with their children and parents' joint activities with their children. This information was obtained through parent-teacher conferences and teachers recorded written summaries of the two activities. On the basis of these summaries the parents were later classified into different categories.

Analysis of results of the study indicated that more mothers than fathers participated in the groups. Parents who participated in the parent education study-discussion groups manifested greater knowledge in parent education than those who did not. Responses on the PARI indicated that parents who were concerned about preventing their children from wrestling, hitting, and fighting had not been members of a parent education group. However, on 20 of the 23 sub-scale scores, there were no significant differences in attitudes toward child-rearing among parents in the three groups. There was also no significant difference in overt behavior between the groups. However, the children in the experimental groups were different from the other groups in perceiving themselves as doing well in school, being happy, and being satisfied with themselves as they are. Limitation of this study included small sample size, short duration of treatment and inadequacy of instruments to assess change. Endres and Evans (1968) have also suggested that research in this area is hampered by difficulties in holding subjects in volunteer programs, in securing data on changed behavior by direct observation, and again in selecting the best criteria

of change.

Parent Effectiveness Training. Over the past five years, a number of investigations have been conducted using the Parent Effectiveness Training (P.E.T.) program. Stearn (1970) attempted to study the effects of this program on parent attitudes, parent behavior and child self-esteem. Subjects in the experimental group were enrolled in three different P.E.T. classes and were invited to participate in the study before being exposed to the program. Control group subjects were invited to attend a lecture with those who volunteered after the lecture comprising one form of control and those who did not volunteer making a second control group. Subjects were pre- and post-tested on the Levinson-Hoffmann Traditional Family Ideology Scale which purports to assess democratic versus autocratic attitudes. In addition, parents administered Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory and the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory to their children. Follow-up measures were also obtained. The study produced many ambiguous and unpredictable findings which may be partially attributed to lack of control for initial differences between groups, administration of tests to children by their parents, and use of instruments having questionable reliability and appropriateness as criterion measures.

A more controlled study of the P.E.T. program has been reported by Lillibridge (1971). In this case, the Hereford Parent Attitude Survey and the Children's Report of Parent Behavior were employed to assess changes in parents' attitudes and children's perceptions of their parents. Subjects in the experimental group were found to be significantly more accepting and trusting of their children as well as more confident in their parental role than those in either the delayed

treatment or random control groups. The groups showed no significant changes either in understanding the cause of the child's problems or in understanding of the child. According to Lillibridge, one outstanding limitation of the study lay in use of the Parent Attitude Survey which has only face validity suggesting that further validation of the scales should be carried out or another instrument should be used. There were also differences between groups in terms of marital status, income, and numbers of male and female subjects. Children's perceptions of their parents may also vary as a function of age and sex.

Using a modification of Hereford's Parent Attitude Survey in a similar type of investigation, Haynes (1972) found that parents enrolled in a P.E.T. program improved their attitudes toward child-rearing ($p < .01$) while no such change was found in those attending a lecture/discussion series on adolescent psychology. Other studies of the P.E.T. program employing pre-experimental designs (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) have been reported by Peterson (1970) and Garcia (1971). A more controlled investigation was conducted by Larson (1972) but here again problems with instrumentation existed and adequate statistical analysis was lacking. It might also be noted that none of the studies of the P.E.T. program cited previously have attempted to assess overt behavior.

Dreikurs Parent Study Groups. Few investigations involving the Dreikurs program have been reported. Probably the most relevant one in terms of the present work is that reported by Swenson (1970). Here attempts were made to determine whether parental attitudes toward child-rearing practices could be changed through an educational approach and,

if so, whether there was a resultant change in the children's level of adjustment as rated by their parents, and their adaptation to school as rated by their teachers. Forty-one parents of children in grades one to three attended one of two groups which were led jointly by the experimenter and an elementary school counselor. One group was a lecture-discussion group stressing an Individual Psychological approach while the other was an eclectic film-discussion group stressing no particular orientation. Subjects were pre- and post-tested on the Maryland Parent Attitude Survey. Teacher ratings of the children were also obtained. Statistical analysis revealed no significant changes in attitudes toward child-rearing. Furthermore, no significant differences between groups were obtained in terms of changes in parental attitudes, or change in level of adjustment and adaptation of the children. Swenson has suggested that these findings may reflect insufficient sensitivity to change in the instruments used.

Other studies in which Dreikurs parent study groups have been employed have been reported by Platt (1971) and Essig (1972). In the former investigation, parent education groups were included as part of a total evaluation of the Adlerian counseling model. In the latter study, such groups become part of an attempt to assess the predictive aspects of the Adlerian approach to family adjustment. Seven families completed Farber's Index of Marital Integration and Cassell's Child Behavior Rating Scale both before and after participating in the parent study group. Three counselors who were experts in Adler's Individual Psychology as it applied to family adjustment made predictions of improvement, regression, or no-change in the areas measured. While this investigation was limited in terms of sample size and appropriateness of

the instruments used, Essig concluded that some support was provided for the Adlerian concept of family interaction.

Critique and Suggested Research. From the studies cited earlier, it might be concluded that results of evaluative studies on parent education programs are inconsistent and inconclusive. While researchers are faced with practical problems such as small sample sizes, variable attendance at meetings and attendance of mothers only, difficulties in measurement also persist. In particular, the prime means of assessment usually consists of some parent attitude questionnaire such as that developed by Shoben (1949) which has only face validity or some modification of it. One such instrument which is frequently used is the PARI (Schaeffer & Bell, 1958). Following an extensive review of research on the PARI, Becker and Krug (1965) not only recommended use of interview and observational procedures where possible but also suggested that response-set problems and the overriding influence of education on scores created difficulties which were serious enough to consider beginning again from a different viewpoint rather than working toward a revision of the instrument. Other instruments which have been used include child behavior rating scales (Platt, 1971), children's grade point averages (Larson, 1972) and children's reports of parental behavior (Lillibridge, 1972). None of these instruments directly focus on what the parent practices with a particular child either in terms of self-report or actual performance. Where overt behaviors have been considered, behavior changes have been self-reported rather than observed as in the study by Hereford (1963) or they have been assessed from summaries of teacher interviews as in the study by Endres and Evans (1968). What has been overlooked, probably

for financial and practical reasons, is that parental attitudes, self-reported practices and actual behavior may not be congruent.

In a different type of study, Buckland (1971) attempted to formulate some criteria for evaluating parent education programs through adaptation of literature on curriculum development. Groups following the Dreikurs model, the P.E.T. program and procedures outlined by the Child Study Association of America were evaluated in terms of intended outcomes, input of required resources, transformation of resources and assessment and feedback. While Buckland's evaluation is essentially qualitative in nature, her findings warrant some consideration.

In particular, one of the most critical variables which seemed to "make a difference" in the outcomes of the programs she evaluated was the handling of issues related to discipline. Buckland found that the problem of "maintaining control" was very relevant for parents in all groups with the various programs dealing with this issue in different ways. Since the question of control of children's behavior was a constant theme in observations made in her study, Buckland has suggested that further exploration of methods of control employed following enrollment in parent programs is needed. In addition, she has stressed the need for further research in which the focus of evaluation is on behavioral rather than attitudinal change for both parent and child.

In summary, a review of the research on parent education programs reveals a paucity of well-designed evaluative studies of such programs. In addition, many of the outstanding problems facing researchers at this time relate to selection of relevant variables, use of adequate instruments and employment of observational as well as

attitudinal measures. Buckland (1971) has noted that further research concerning issues of control, handling of differences and the resolution of conflict is needed. Such findings appear to have relevance for evaluation of the Dreikurs model of parent education where very few studies have been reported.

Relevant Research on Child-Rearing Practices

As noted previously, a review of research on parent education programs has revealed that previous attempts at program evaluation have been hampered by serious methodological difficulties, particularly in terms of instrumentation. A consideration of relevant research on child-rearing practices may prove fruitful in providing some possible alternatives.

A comprehensive review of studies on parent-child interaction by Lytton (1971) revealed a variety of variables which have come under investigation. These include approval, disapproval, command, compliance, dependence (Patterson & Reid, 1970), power assertion by mother (Chamberlin, 1969), control, specificity of suggestion, ignoring, positive and negative feedback, and nonverbal intrusion (Bee, Van Egeren, Streissguth, Nyman, & Leckie, 1969).

One of the more interesting investigations cited by Lytton and one which appears to have particular relevance for the present work is that conducted by Baumrind (1967). In particular, Baumrind attempted to systematically study child-rearing practices associated with instrumental competence in children. Instrumental competence was defined as being socially responsible and independent behavior which according to Dreikurs, is characteristic of the healthy person. Three

patterns of parental authority were identified as being authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. More particularly, multiple assessments in terms of parental control, maturity demands, clarity of communication, and warmth revealed that parents of children who were the most self-reliant, self-controlled, explorative and content were themselves controlling and demanding. However, they were also warm, rational and receptive to the child's communication. This unique combination of high control and positive encouragement of the child's autonomous and independent strivings has been referred to by Baumrind (1966, 1967, 1970) as authoritative parental behavior. In this study, it was also found that parents of children who, relative to the others, were discontent, withdrawn and distrustful, were themselves detached and controlling, and somewhat less warm than other parents. These were referred to as being authoritarian in their practices. Finally, parents of the least self-reliant, explorative and self-controlled children were themselves non-controlling, nondemanding, and relatively warm - a pattern identified with permissiveness. Further support for these findings was obtained in another investigation (Baumrind & Black, 1967).

It might be noted that Baumrind has not only defined three patterns of parental behavior which bear particular similarity to Dreikurs' descriptions of democratic, authoritarian and permissive approaches to child-rearing but that she has also defined four dimensions of parent behavior which she has identified as being critical in differentiating between the patterns. These four dimensions which include parental control, maturity demands, nurturance and communication may be assessed in terms of parental attitudes, practices and behavior and Baumrind has developed means for conducting such an assessment

through interview and observational procedures. In view of recent criticism of the use of attitudinal measures to assess parent education programs, Baumrind's work appears to have particular relevance both conceptually and methodologically for evaluation of the Dreikurs program. While Baumrind's four dimensions may be used in differentiating patterns of authority, in the present work these dimensions have been employed in assessing the effects of the Dreikurs model of parent education.

Summary

A review of the literature has revealed that research on the Dreikurs model of parent education has been extremely limited and where research has been conducted with other programs, problems in instrumentation persist. With his orientation in Adlerian theory, Dreikurs has emphasized the importance of democratic parent-child relationships in developing independence and socially responsible behavior in children. According to Baumrind (1967), four dimensions of parental behavior which appear to have particular relevance for the development of instrumental competence in children are parental control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance. In the present study, these four dimensions have been employed in assessing the effects of the Dreikurs model of parent education in terms of attitudes, practices and actual behavior.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

I. Procedure and Design

Subjects

Mothers of children enrolled in kindergartens in fourteen schools, which were considered to be representative of schools in the Edmonton Public School system, were invited to participate in a Dreikurs parent study group. Schools were selected on the basis of geographic location and socio-economic class of residents in the area of the school. Names and addresses of mothers of children in the kindergartens were obtained from the executive of the parent advisory committee for each kindergarten. In all cases, mothers received a copy of the letter and questionnaire shown in Appendix B. In twelve of the schools, letters were mailed directly to the mothers. In three of the schools, the experimenter at the request of the kindergarten executive spoke to the mothers about the program at a kindergarten meeting. In one case, letters were mailed directly to the kindergarten teacher and were distributed to the children to take home with them. This was done at the request of the principal of the school in order to maintain parental anonymity.

In all, 750 mothers were contacted. From this, 91 responses to volunteer were received with ten of the volunteers being single parents. The single parents were not included in the study, as it was considered desirable to maintain homogeneity in terms of marital status. Consequently, the pool of volunteers obtained numbered 81 with all

these mothers being parents of children between the ages of four and six years.

From the remaining pool of volunteers, sixty mothers were randomly selected to participate in the study. The subjects were subsequently assigned to one of two treatment conditions (experimental) and control), with thirty subjects in each group. Six of the mothers withdrew from the study with biographical data being obtained on the remaining fifty-four through completion of the questionnaire shown in Appendix C. Data on the age and education of these subjects have been shown in Table 2. The average number of children in a family was 2.8 with 23 boys and 31 girls being enrolled in kindergarten. Three of the mothers had previously been enrolled in a parent education program with none having participated in a Dreikurs parent study group.

TABLE 2

Age and Education of Mothers

	Age			Education		
Group	20-29	30-39	40-49	Grade 9 or below	Grades 10-12	College or University
Experimental	9	16	3	4	16	8
Control	8	15	3	0	18	8
Total	17	31	6	4	34	16

Instruments

The Parent Interview. Baumrind (1967) adapted the parent interview used by Sears, Maccoby, and Levin (1957) in order to obtain information about parental attitudes. The interview is divided into two sections with the first part containing questions about child-rearing beliefs and attitudes and the second part containing questions about child-rearing performance. This division was made in order to distinguish between child-rearing ideology and actual practices. Within the interview schedule, questions are grouped in sections with each section focusing on a different dimension of parent-child interaction. Fifty-six five-point scales are used to rate the interview transcript, with "5" representing the high-extreme rating. The interview schedule may be found in Appendix D while the scales for the parent interviews have been included as Appendix E. The parents' responses to questions regarding their beliefs and attitudes are rated on each scale. The rating procedure is repeated on responses to questions regarding performance. The four dimensions of parental control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance are assessed by scales 1-33, 34-41, 42-47 and 48-56 respectively, with scores on each dimension consisting of composites of scores on the appropriate scales.

Tari (1971) used multiple measures in a study of fathering and has reported the following correlations:

HVSA Home Visit - Interview Attitudes -- r = .62

HVSA Home Visit - Interview Practices -- r = .96

HVSA Home Visit - HVSA Experiment -- r = .92

Interview Attitudes - Interview Practices -- r = .71

HVSA Experiment - Interview Attitudes -- r = .68

HVSA Experiment - Interview Practices -- r = .89

Home Visit Sequence Analysis (HVSA). The HVSA was initially developed by Baumrind (1967) to measure four dimensions of parental behavior identified as control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance and has been used with some modifications by Tari (1971). HVSA was designed to measure in detail those parent-child interactions in which one member (the parent) attempts overtly to influence the behavior of another (the child) or vice versa. The categories of behavior coded were similar to those used by Moustakas, Sigel and Schalock (1956). The major interaction unit is called a sequence and its length depends upon the time elapsed between the initiation of an act and its outcome.

According to Baumrind (1967), a control sequence consists of two or more causally related acts containing a single message and involving the same two family members as participants in an interchange initiated by one of them and ending with the other's compliance or non-compliance. A noncontrol sequence has no initiator or outcome but otherwise has the same definition.

Coded elements in the sequence include the participants, substantive message, degree of power and kind of incentive used, control-outcome ratings, and child satisfaction. Type I sequences are control sequences initiated by the parent intended to control or alter the behavior or future capacity to act of the child. In his initiating act the parent directs the child on how to behave, impelling the child by power or incentive. The child responds by complying or not complying. He makes decisions immediately, or following a number of interpersonal maneuvers with the parent who initiated the sequence. These maneuvers and the results are called the control-outcome rating. The nature of

the demand made upon the child determines the message code. Type II sequences are child-initiated control sequences. In this case the child makes a demand of the parent with which the parent complies or fails to comply immediately, or after further interaction with the child. Type III sequences are parent-initiated, non-control sequences engaged in without the intention of altering behavior and usually for the benefit of both parent and child. The HVSA categories have been outlined in Appendix F while an HVSA coding form may be found in Appendix G. Definitions for the parent behavior dimensions of maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance as well as for the individual variables comprising each dimension have been presented elsewhere (see pp. 55-59). In order to combine scores obtained on the individual variables, the first principal component was obtained for each of the four dimensions using the total sample. The weights for each variable may be found in Appendix H.

An example of a sequence is:

Todd gets up from the table.
Father: What do you say, Todd?
Todd: Excuse me please.
Father: What?
Todd: Excuse me, please.
Father: O.K. (Baumrind, 1967, p. 65)

Baumrind (1967) has reported reliabilities ranging from .76 to .90 on four kinds of reliability measures. The reliabilities were as follows: Reliability 1 - one transcript, two coders, both visited home--averaged .90; Reliability 2 - one transcript, two coders, neither visited home--averaged .76; Reliability 3 - two transcripts, one coder who visited home--averaged .80; Reliability 4 - two transcripts, two coders who visited home--averaged .84.

Tari (1971) adapted the HVSA for use in observation of parent-child interactions in structured situation. Tari has reported a correlation of .92 between results obtained during home visits and those obtained during structured observation. As Lytton (1971) has pointed out, arguments can be made to justify both home visits and observation in a structured situation. The latter has the advantage of providing a standardized setting and ensures that the external stimuli affecting the child's behavior are kept reasonably constant so that situations are comparable from child to child. In the present investigation, mother-child interactions were observed in structured situations.

Training of Interviewers and Observers

Four female graduate students who were enrolled in an individual counseling practicum in the Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta and who had already received training in interviewing skills were employed as interviewers. These students received copies of Baumrind's parent interview schedule and parent interview scales in order to familiarize themselves with the materials. Following this, they were involved in a two-hour training session in which an audiotape of an interview with a mother was used.

In addition, three graduate students were trained in observation of mother-child interactions according to the HVSA. Three graduate students were also trained in the procedures involved in interviewing mothers and in rating responses to questions. Training was conducted through participation in a twelve-week course in the Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta. A number of readings

(Baumrind, 1967; Kerlinger, 1964; Lytton, 1971) and several videotapes developed by Tari (1971) were employed in training. All of the raters were involved solely in observing and rating videotapes of mother-child interactions and in rating interviews.

Description of Structured Observations

Each mother-child dyad was observed and videotaped in a structured observation situation. Following this, observers viewed the videotapes and recorded all parent-child interactions where one member attempted overtly to influence the behavior of another. The materials, procedures and equipment for the structured observation situations are described as follows.

Materials. Tari (1971) has described procedures for structured observations in which fathers administered the Autonomous Achievement Motivation Test (AAMT) (Veroff, 1969) to their children. The same procedure was used in the current investigation. Essentially, the AAMT consists of three types of tasks involving visual memory, picture memory and drawing. The three tasks have been described hereafter while instructions to mothers have been described in Appendix I.

1. Visual Memory Task: The child must reproduce different strings of "snap-it" beads from memory. Six strings of beads of varying numbers, shape and color are presented to the child, one by one, as models or stimuli until the child fails the task of reproducing the strings from memory twice.
2. Picture Memory Task: The child must recall the names of various pictures from memory. The materials consist of eight sheets of paper with 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 13, 16, and 20

pictures of objects pasted on them.

3. Drawing Task: Seven cards with designs are presented to the child, one by one, in increasing order of difficulty. Bender Gestalt cards A, 6, 5, 1, 3, 7, 2 are presented to the child and compared with reproduction deviations outlined by Koppitz (1964). The task is discontinued after two failures.

Distracting Stimuli. In order to observe how the mother controlled the behavior of her child, mother and child were observed in a play room setting. The room was equipped with a sandbox, climbing apparatus for children, child-size tables and chairs, chalkboard, puppets and multiple games.

Procedure. In accordance with Tari's (1971) description, the child was encouraged to become familiar with the surroundings and equipment. He was permitted to explore and play with the toys used as distracting stimuli. At the same time the mother was given verbal instructions regarding the task. In addition, she was given written instructions for all tasks to be performed. The mother was told that she was the experimenter and that the child was the subject. She was encouraged to study the instructions until she understood the tasks involved and as soon as she was ready, she was to begin on her own. She was casually informed that the whole procedure takes about twenty minutes to complete. Under these stressful conditions, it was possible to observe and videotape the manner in which the mother enforced rules, her methods of teaching and her ability to motivate the child in order to obtain his cooperation and compliance.

Technical Equipment. Observations of mother-child interaction

were carried out in an area consisting of a playroom and an observation room separated from each other by a wall-to-wall one-way mirror. A portable television camera which was part of a closed circuit system was operated from the observation room behind the mirror.

Group Leaders

Parent study group leaders consisted of six graduate students enrolled in a group counseling practicum in the Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta. Four of the leaders were female and two male with each one participating on a voluntary basis. Four of the leaders were enrolled in a program leading to a Master's degree in counseling psychology while the remaining two were enrolled in a doctoral program. Five of the leaders had had previous training and experience in individual counseling. One leader was enrolled concurrently in a practicum in individual counseling but had already completed a Master's program in clinical psychology with work experience. Groups were conducted in pairs with no group led by males only. At least one of the leaders in each pair had already attended workshops in Adlerian family counseling.

Prior to the beginning of the parent study group sessions, leaders participated in a two-hour training session in which they were familiarized with the orientation of the program and with the materials to be used. Each leader received a copy of Children: The Challenge (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964), the Study Group Leader's Manual (Soltz, 1967), and the supplementary materials for participants (see Appendix A). In addition to this, leaders acquired copies of a book on group counseling

(Dinkmeyer & Muro, 1971) which was one of the required texts for their course. Each pair presented one videotape of their parent group in class for discussion of group dynamics and the role of the leaders.

Design

The design of the study followed the Posttest-Only Control group model in which subjects were randomly assigned to groups. Campbell and Stanley (1963) have described this as a true experimental design. Randomization provides assurance of lack of initial biases between groups. This design controls for internal validity and since there is no pretest, interaction of testing with treatment is controlled as well.

Treatments

Sixty subjects were randomly assigned to one of two treatment conditions with thirty subjects in each group. Subjects in the experimental group participated in the parent education program while those in the control group received delayed treatment. Within the experimental group, an attempt was made to randomly assign subjects to one of three groups each consisting of ten subjects. Data were not available on two of the subjects so that the experimental group was made up of 28 subjects with nine subjects in group 1, ten in group 2 and nine in group 3. Results of these three groups were compared. Where no differences were found to exist, they were combined into one experimental group for analysis.

The experimental treatment consisted of participation in a parent education program based upon Dreikurs' ideas on child-rearing. The program followed the outline shown in Appendix A which indicates the

topics for discussion each week as well as relevant reading material and homework assignments. Each group met for two hours each week over a period of ten weeks. Topics covered included discussion of the family atmosphere and the family constellation, encouragement, goals of misbehavior, resolving conflicts, developing social responsibility and independence and family communications. During the first session each mother received a copy of Children: The Challenge (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964) as well as a set of the supplementary materials for participants shown in Appendix A. During the fifth and tenth session, mothers completed evaluation forms (see Appendix A) which provided subjective feedback for the group leaders and the experimenter. Information regarding attendance was reported by the group leaders with the average number of sessions attended being 8.8. One subject withdrew after the fourth session.

Limitations of the Study

Two outstanding limitations of the investigation as it was conducted are apparent. These include selection of subjects and instrumentation. An examination of each of these areas seems warranted.

One critical factor in using a Posttest-Only Control Group design is random selection of subjects (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). If the pool of volunteers from which the sample is drawn is small relative to the number of subjects needed as in the present study, the external validity of the results is threatened. Also, when necessarily, subjects consist of only those who are invited to participate, the results cannot be generalized beyond this population. Because subjects are aware from the beginning that their involvement includes extensive evaluation, this

factor in itself may bias the sample obtained. In other words, many mothers who would like to attend a parent group may not necessarily want to participate in an evaluated project. Those who do volunteer may be highly motivated at the start; a factor which could effect scores on nurturance.

As with most previous investigation of parent education programs, (Endres & Evans, 1968; Shapiro, 1956; Stearn, 1970; Swenson, 1970), a major limitation of the present study lay in the instruments used. An examination of the Parent Interview Schedule shows that the items do not correspond with those on the Parent Interview Scale and are not constructed to elicit explicit information for rating responses on the scales. Also, the 5-point rating scales with guidelines only at the extremes lend themselves to wide variations in interpretation, so that training of interviewers and raters then becomes critical. In addition to this, the generalizability of results obtained from observation in a structured situation to the home may be questioned.

II. Parent Behavior Dimensions

Introduction

Baumrind (1967) has defined four dimensions of parent behavior (control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance) which may be assessed in terms of attitudes and expressed child-rearing practices through interview procedures. The same dimensions may be assessed through observation of parent-child behavior either in the home (Baumrind, 1967) or in structured situations (Tari, 1971) by using the Home Visit Sequence Analysis (HVSA). Since these four dimensions have been employed in the present investigation to assess differences in

child-rearing attitudes, practices, and behavior between mothers who have participated in a Dreikurs parent study group and those who have received no such treatment, definitions for each of the four parent behavior dimensions have been described hereafter. Each of the dimensions consists of a number of individual variables. The conceptual definition for each dimension has been given first followed by the operational definitions for each of the variables. In order to obtain scores on the dimensions of maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance for the mother-child interactions, the first principal components of variables A-E, F-I, J-L, and M-O were calculated.

Definitions

Control. Maternal control refers to the socializing functions of the parent. It consists of those maternal acts that are intended to shape the child's goal-oriented activity, modify his expression of dependent, aggressive, and playful behavior, and promote internalization of maternal standards. Control as defined here is not a measure of restrictiveness, primitive attitudes or intrusiveness. Maternal control includes such variables as consistency in enforcing directives, ability to resist pressure from the child, and willingness to exert influence on the child. The individual variables comprising maternal control are as follows.

A. Positive Outcome: The percentage of mother initiated control sequences in which the child complies. The purpose of this variable is to measure the mother's ability to enforce directions.

B. Positive Outcome by Persistence: The percentage of mother-initiated control sequences where compliance is achieved after a repeated directive or increase in power. The purpose of this variable

is to measure the mother's ability to enforce directives when the child initially does not obey.

C. Accepts Power Conflict with Child: The percentage of child-initiated sequences in which the mother does not evade the child's request as a method of non-compliance. The purpose of this variable is to measure the mother's use of evasion as a tactic when she does not wish to comply with the child's request.

D. Does not Accept Power Conflict with Child: The percentage of child-initiated sequences in which the mother does not comply with the child's request. The purpose of this variable is to measure the extent to which the mother is not coerced into complying with the expressed wishes of the child.

E. Uses Incentive and Reinforcement: The percentage of mother-initiated control sequences and mother-initiated noncontrol sequences involving the use of incentive or reinforcement. The purpose of this variable is to measure the mother's use of reinforcement either positive or negative.

Maturity Demands. Maturity demands refer to the pressures put upon the child to perform at least up to ability in intellectual, social and emotional spheres (independence-training) and leeway given the child to make his own decisions (independence-granting). The individual variables comprising maturity demands are as follows.

F. Independence Training, control: The percentage of mother-initiated control sequences where the message concerns insight into cause and effect relations or factual knowledge about the world. The purpose of this variable is to measure the extent to which the mother's control efforts are integrated with information or a rationale which

would increase the child's ability to direct himself/herself in accordance with certain principles set forth by the mother.

G. Independence Training, noncontrol: The percentage of mother-initiated nonpower sequences where the message concerns an exchange of information, an advancement of the child's cognitive/social skills, or a decision made by the child. The purpose of this variable is to measure in non-disciplinary situations the same maternal behavior as in variable F (control).

H. Respects Child's Decision: The percentage of mother-initiated control sequences involving non-compliance where the mother retracts a directive on the basis of the child's arguments. The purpose of this variable is to measure the mother's willingness to withdraw a directive on the basis of the child's arguments. As in variable C, she does not persist in enforcing her original directive, but in contrast to variable C she explicitly retracts her directive in response to a verbalized objection made by the child.

I. Grants Independence: The percentage of child-initiated sequences where the child demands the right to make a choice or act autonomously and the mother complies or offers an alternative. The purpose of this variable is to measure the mother's reaction to the child's active bid to act or decide autonomously.

Communication. Communication refers to the extent to which the mother uses verbal reasoning either to obtain compliance or to solicit the child's opinions and feelings and uses verbal (open) rather than other manipulative techniques of control. The individual variables comprising the dimension of communication are as follows.

J. Uses Reason to Obtain Compliance: The percentage of mother-

initiated control sequences in which the mother uses reason with the directive. The purpose of this variable is to measure the mother's offering of a reason for a directive prior to a child's objection.

K. Encourages Verbal Give and Take: The percentage of control sequences in which the mother uses power or reason or responds with power or reason to the child's demands in order to handle a mother-child divergence. This also includes the percentage of control sequences in which the mother engages the child in argument generally altering his course of action as a result. The purpose of this variable is to measure the extent to which the mother responds to divergence by the use of reason and argument rather than power.

L. Source of Power Not Disguised: The percentage of mother-initiated sequences involving power in which the mother does not disguise the source of power. The purpose of this variable is to measure the extent to which the mother manipulates the child without using guilt or diversion and without disguising in her initiating act that she is attempting to control the child.

Nurturance. Nurturance refers to the caretaking functions of the mother including those maternal acts and attitudes that express love and are directed at guaranteeing the child's physical and emotional well-being. Nurturance is expressed by warmth and involvement. Warmth is defined as the mother's personal love and compassion for the child expressed by means of sensory stimulation, verbal approval, and tenderness of expression and touch. Involvement is defined as pride and pleasure in the child's accomplishments as manifested by words of praise and in interest shown. The individual variables comprising the dimension of nurturance are as follows.

M. Satisfies Child: The percentage of child-initiated sequences in which the interaction produces satisfaction for the child. The purpose of this variable is to measure the extent to which the mother succeeds in satisfying the child in child-initiated sequences.

N. Supports Child: The percentage of child-initiated sequences involving the child's request for support where the mother complies less those sequences where the mother does not comply without giving a reason or alternative. The purpose of this variable is to measure the mother's tendency to react affirmatively to the child's bids for support and attention.

O. Uses Positive Incentive and Reinforcement: The percentage of mother-initiated sequences involving the use of negative or positive incentive or reinforcement where positive incentive or reinforcement are used. The purpose is to measure the use of positive to negative reinforcement holding the use of reinforcement constant.

III. Hypotheses

Since previous findings of research in the area of parent education have been inconsistent and inconclusive, for purposes of the current investigation hypotheses were stated in the null form.

Hypothesis 1

There is no difference in expressed beliefs and attitudes toward child-rearing as measured by Baumrind's parent interview scale between mothers who participate in a Dreikurs parent study group and those who do not. Expressed beliefs and attitudes are assessed on the following dimensions:

(a) maternal control

(b) maternal maturity demands

(c) maternal communication

(d) maternal nurturance

Hypothesis 2

There is no difference in expressed child-rearing practices as measured by Baumrind's parent interview scale between mothers who participate in a Dreikurs parent study group and those who do not. Expressed child-rearing practices are assessed on the following dimensions:

(a) maternal control

(b) maternal maturity demands

(c) maternal communication

(d) maternal nurturance

Hypothesis 3

There is no difference in observed behavior as measured by Baumrind's HVSA between mothers who have participated in a Dreikurs parent study group and those who have not. Observed behavior is assessed on the following dimensions:

(a) maternal control

(b) maternal maturity demands

(c) maternal communication

(d) maternal nurturance

Hypothesis 4

There is no relationship between expressed child-rearing attitudes and practices among mothers who have participated in a Dreikurs parent study group in terms of

(a) maternal control

(b) maternal maturity demands

(c) maternal communication

(d) maternal nurturance

Hypothesis 5

There is no relationship between expressed child-rearing attitudes and observed behavior among mothers who have participated in a Dreikurs parent study group in terms of

(a) maternal control

(b) maternal maturity demands

(c) maternal communication

(d) maternal nurturance

Hypothesis 6

There is no relationship between expressed child-rearing practices and observed behavior among mothers who have participated in a Dreikurs parent study group in terms of

(a) maternal control

(b) maternal maturity demands

(c) maternal communication

(d) maternal nurturance

IV. Statistical Analysis

Reliabilities

Reliability estimates for the HVSA coding and for ratings of the parent interviews were computed using the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient. In order to ensure the reliability of HVSA

coding, ten of the videotapes of mother-child interaction were randomly selected and divided into 15 minute segments. The 22 segments obtained were coded by three observers trained in HVSA decoding. Reliabilities consisted of an average of the individual reliabilities obtained on variables A-O. The inter-coder reliabilities obtained in this manner were as follows:

Between coders 1 and 2 -- 0.83

Between coders 1 and 3 -- 0.90

Between coders 2 and 3 -- 0.87

In estimating the inter-rater reliability for the parent interview, one-third of the transcripts were scored by two raters and one-quarter were scored by three raters. Reliabilities consisted of an average of the individual reliabilities obtained on the scores for maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance in terms of both attitudes and practices. The inter-rater reliabilities obtained in this manner were as follows:

Between raters 1 and 2 -- 0.93

Between raters 1 and 3 -- 0.87

Between raters 2 and 3 -- 0.88

Analysis of Results

In order to form one experimental group, the three treatment groups were compared in terms of attendance at the parent study group sessions. Behaviors, attitudes and practices on the dimensions of maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance, were also compared. A one-way analysis of variance was used.

T-tests were used in analyzing the results for hypotheses 1-3

where differences between the experimental and control groups were being assessed in terms of maternal attitudes, practices and behaviors. Where no differences were found, the data were further analyzed using an F-test for the homogeneity of variance. It should be noted that since one of the assumptions underlying the use of the t-test is that of homogeneity of variances, data are usually analyzed for homogeneity of variances first. The approach used in the present work represented a departure from this procedure.

In order to assess the relationship between child-rearing attitudes, practices and behaviors among mothers in the experimental group (Hypotheses 4-6), Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated.

Summary

In this chapter the procedure and design of the study were outlined. Following this, the definitions of the parent behavior dimensions employed in the study were presented. The particular hypotheses to be tested along with the corresponding statistical analyses followed.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

I. Introduction

In order to form one experimental group for testing the hypotheses, the three treatment groups were combined on a number of variables as shown in Table 3. A one-way analysis of variance was applied to the data from the groups. Since no significant differences among the three groups were found, the data were combined to form one experimental group.

Once the experimental group was formed, the hypotheses were tested using the 0.05 level of significance. The findings for each hypothesis have been presented followed by the relevant conclusion.

II. Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Findings. It was hypothesized that mothers who participated in a Dreikurs parent study group would show no differences in expressed beliefs and attitudes toward child-rearing from those who did not participate in such a program. Results of comparisons on the dimensions of maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance have been presented in Table 4. The only significant difference obtained was on the dimension of maternal maturity demands.

Conclusion. Hypothesis 1 was supported in that no attitudinal differences on the dimensions of maternal control, communication and nurturance between participants and non-participants in a Dreikurs

TABLE 3

Summary of One-Way Analysis of Variance:

Three Treatment Groups

Variable	Source of Variation	df	MS	F	p
Attendance	Groups	2	3.40	1.56	n.s.
	Error	25	2.18		
Attitudes Control	Groups	2	69.25	1.19	n.s.
	Error	25	58.38		
Maturity Demands	Groups	2	19.47	1.78	n.s.
	Error	25	10.93		
Communication	Groups	2	0.62	0.06	n.s.
	Error	25	9.68		
Nurturance	Groups	2	0.47	0.02	n.s.
	Error	25	20.40		
Practices Control	Groups	2	112.31	1.12	n.s.
	Error	25	99.92		
Maturity Demands	Groups	2	19.63	1.12	n.s.
	Error	25	17.46		
Communication	Groups	2	4.16	0.27	n.s.
	Error	25	15.35		
Nurturance	Groups	2	0.07	0.00	n.s.
	Error	25	27.39		
Behavior Control	Groups	2	0.56	0.54	n.s.
	Error	25	1.02		
Maturity Demands	Groups	2	0.34	0.21	n.s.
	Error	25	1.59		
Communication	Groups	2	0.81	0.59	n.s.
	Error	25	1.37		
Nurturance	Groups	2	1.26	1.06	n.s.
	Error	25	1.20		

TABLE 4

T-tests of Differences in Maternal Attitudes Between Experimental (Y1) and Control (Y2) Groups

Attitude Dimension	$\bar{Y}1$	S.D.1	$\bar{Y}2$	S.D.2	t	p
Control	94.93	7.69	96.92	9.96	- .83	n.s.
Maturity Demands	27.18	3.40	25.42	2.80	2.06	<.05
Communication	23.25	3.00	21.77	3.52	1.67	n.s.
Nurturance	33.96	4.35	33.69	3.44	0.25	n.s.

parent study group were found. Hypothesis 1(c) was not supported in that there was a significant difference in maternal attitudes regarding maturity demands between participants and non-participants.

Hypothesis 2

Findings. In the second hypothesis it was predicted there would be no differences in child-rearing practices between mothers who participated in a Dreikurs parent study group and those who did not. Results of comparisons on the dimensions of maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance have been shown in Table 5. No significant differences were found.

Conclusion. Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3

Findings. In hypothesis 3 it was hypothesized that there would be no behavioral differences between participants and non-participants in

TABLE 5

T-tests of Differences in Maternal Practices Between Experimental (Y1) and Control (Y2) Groups

Practices Dimension	$\bar{Y}1$	S.D.1	$\bar{Y}2$	S.D.2	t	p
Control	93.11	10.04	95.04	9.54	-0.72	n.s.
Maturity Demands	26.29	4.20	25.04	2.84	1.27	n.s.
Communication	22.32	3.81	20.81	3.35	1.55	n.s.
Nurturance	33.57	5.04	33.42	3.79	0.12	n.s.

df = 52

a Dreikurs parent study group in terms of maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance. Results for this hypothesis have been presented in Table 6. No significant differences were found.

Conclusion. The third hypothesis was supported in that no behavioral differences were found between mothers who participated in the parent education program and those who did not.

Hypothesis 4

Findings. A lack of relationship between child-rearing attitudes and practices among participants in a Dreikurs parenting program was predicted. Correlations on the dimensions of maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance have been shown in Table 7. All of the correlations obtained were significant at the .01 level.

Conclusion. Hypothesis 4 was not supported. Child-rearing

TABLE 6

T-tests of Differences in Maternal Behavior Between Experimental (Y1) and Control (Y2) Groups

Behavior Dimension	$\bar{Y}1$	S.D.1	$\bar{Y}2$	S.D.2	t	p
Control	-0.08	0.99	0.08	1.04	-0.57	n.s.
Maturity Demands	0.07	1.22	-0.07	0.73	0.50	n.s.
Communication	0.23	1.15	-0.25	0.78	1.78	n.s.
Nurturance	0.08	1.10	-0.08	0.92	0.58	n.s.

df = 52

TABLE 7

Correlations Between Maternal Attitudes and Practices: Experimental Group

Dimension	Correlation Coefficient	p
Control	.87	<.01
Maturity Demands	.84	<.01
Communication	.92	<.01
Nurturance	.96	<.01

attitudes and practices among mothers who participated in a Dreikurs parent study group were found to be highly related.

Hypothesis 5

Findings. It was hypothesized that no relationship between maternal attitudes and behaviors would be found among participants in a Dreikurs parent program. The correlations obtained in terms of control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance have been presented in Table 8. The correlations were not significant.

TABLE 8

Correlations Between Maternal Attitudes and Behavior: Experimental Group

Dimension	Correlation Coefficient	p
Control	0.052	n.s.
Maturity Demands	0.032	n.s.
Communication	0.31	n.s.
Nurturance	0.28	n.s.

Conclusion. Support was obtained for Hypothesis 5 in that no significant relationship between child-rearing attitudes and behaviors was found.

Hypothesis 6

Findings. A lack of relationship between child-rearing practices and behaviors among mothers who participated in a Dreikurs parent education program was predicted. Correlations on the dimensions of maternal control, maturity demands, communication and nurturance have been shown in Table 9. The correlations were not significant.

TABLE 9

Correlations Between Maternal Practices and Behavior: Experimental Group

Dimension	Correlation Coefficient	p
Control	0.075	n.s.
Maturity Demands	-0.016	n.s.
Communication	0.35	n.s.
Nurturance	0.22	n.s.

Conclusion. Hypothesis 6 was supported in that no significant relationship between expressed practices and observed behaviors was found.

Summary

Findings and conclusions for each of the six hypotheses have been presented. A significant difference in attitudes toward maturity demands was found between mothers who participated in a Dreikurs parent

study group and those who did not. A strong relationship between attitudes and practices toward child-rearing among mothers who participated in the parent education program was also found. The results of the study with implications for further work in this area have been considered in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

I. Discussion of Results

While the results presented in Chapter IV reveal few significant differences in attitudes, practices and behaviors among participants and non-participants in a Dreikurs parent education program, a further consideration of the results along with some additional findings may provide some directions for future research.

In terms of attitudes in the two groups, the only significant difference was found on the scale for maturity demands. Examination of the means for each group (Table 4, p.66) reveals that the experimental group scored higher on this dimension than the control group. A finding such as this might be understood best in light of the emphasis which Dreikurs has placed on the development of independence and responsibility in children. Additional testing for homogeneity of variance revealed that in terms of attitudes toward child-rearing, the two groups were homogeneous.

When child-rearing practices were compared, no significant differences between means of mothers in the experimental and control groups were found on any of the dimensions of control, maturity demands, communication or nurturance. However, when the data were analyzed for homogeneity of variance, the experimental group was found to be more heterogeneous than the control group in terms of expressed practices regarding maturity demands. These results have been shown in Table 10.

TABLE 10

F-Test of Differences Between Variances (Practices):
Experimental (Y1) and Control (Y2) Groups

Dimension	Variance Y1	Variance Y2	df1	df2	F	P
Maturity Demands	17.62	8.04	27	25	2.19	<.05

In view of the non-significant difference between means on this dimension, the difference in homogeneity would suggest that some subjects in the experimental group scored higher than control subjects while others scored lower than control subjects in their expressed practices regarding maturity demands. Similar kinds of findings have been found in assessing the effects of psychotherapy (Bergin, 1971). Pre-test measures might help to clarify whether there are significant changes on this dimension.

When comparing the behaviors of mothers who had participated in a parent group with those who had not, significant differences between means were not found. However, here again significant differences between groups were obtained when the data were further analyzed for homogeneity of variance. More specifically, while no differencs in variance were found on the dimensions of behavioral control and nurturance, the experimental group was found to be significantly more heterogeneous on the dimensions of maturity demands and communication (Table 11, p. 74). These findings would suggest that further investigation using pre-tests on these dimensions might prove to be beneficial.

TABLE 11

F-Test of Differences Between Variances (Behaviors): Experimental (Y1) and Control (Y2) Groups

Dimension	Variance Y1	Variance Y2	df1	df2	F	P
Maturity Demands	1.49	0.54	27	25	2.79	$<.01$
Communication	1.32	0.61	27	25	2.18	$<.05$

One other finding would suggest that a closer examination of the variables comprising the dimension of maturity demands is needed. A perusal of the weights used to combine the four HVSA variables which form the construct of maturity demands (see Appendix H) revealed that variable I (grants independence) was negatively correlated with the three other variables, F-H. Variable F (independence training, control), variable G (independence training, noncontrol) and variable H (respects child's decision) were all parent-initiated sequences while variable I was child-initiated. It may be that comparisons of group means using only variable F-H or only variable I would show a significant difference between groups.

On examining the intercorrelations in attitudes, practices and behaviors among experimental group subjects, the only significant correlations obtained were between attitudes and practices. Such a finding may reflect a high degree of congruency between attitudes and practices among experimental subjects. On the other hand, the high correlation may also indicate that the instrument failed to discriminate

between attitudes and practices. In view of the fact that information for both measures was obtained from one interview, and that the levels for rating the individual scales were not well defined, the latter explanation is very possible.

To summarize, examinations of the data have indicated that further exploration of changes in maturity demands, and communication following participation in a parent education program, might prove beneficial. It is interesting to note that while Buckland (1971) found that the problem of "maintaining control" was one of the most critical issues for parents involved in parent education programs, no differences on this variable were found in the present study.

II. Implications

Implications for Further Research

As with most previous investigations of parent education programs (Endres & Evans, 1968; Larson, 1972; Lillibridge, 1971; Shapiro, 1956; Stearn, 1970; Swenson, 1970), a major limitation of the present study lay in the instruments used. In spite of their obvious advantages, problems with both the Parent Interview Schedule and the Parent Interview Scales in their present form are major. Not only did the task of reaching a consensus among raters prove to be an arduous one, but it was found that the scales may be interpreted differently by various investigators. Provision of guidelines for rating on all five levels rather than on two, would provide greater validity for the scales. Furthermore, a revision of the interview schedule to elicit information consistent with the scales is necessary in future research. Since a number of the items appear to discriminate against people of a lower

educational level, this factor might also be considered in subsequent revisions. As the dimensions which the instrument attempts to assess appear to have as much or more relevance for work with parents of young children than most available tests, such revisions of this instrument would seem to be worthwhile.

Results of the present study would suggest that in future work in this area, it could be desirable to obtain pre-test measures on the variables assessed. Experience with the Parent Interview Schedule and the Parent Interview Scales would suggest that they not only be revised before being used in additional studies, but also that the efficiency with which they can be administered would have to be improved. The feasibility of using the Home Visit Sequence Analysis in large projects is also debatable in view of the time required for rating. While observation in a structured situation may make data gathering more efficient, the generalizability of findings to home situations may be questioned. This does not mean that behavioral measures should be overlooked in further investigations but rather that careful consideration should be given to the efficiency with which such measures may be obtained.

It is noteworthy that little work has specifically focussed on the personality characteristics of parents along with changes in attitude and behavior following involvement in a parent education program. An examination of information obtained during the current investigation would suggest that variables such as flexibility, dogmatism, and locus of control might have particular relevance for work in this area. In fact, in future studies these variables might be incorporated in a factorial design.

Implications for Parent Education Programs

Feedback from the 28 mothers who participated in the Dreikurs parent study groups was obtained following the fifth and tenth sessions. Overall impressions of the value of the study group to members as indicated on the final evaluation form were positive. Many reported changes in family living, a better understanding of their child and a greater tolerance for conflict, while fewer people indicated no change. Generally responses regarding leadership skills were positive although different tolerances for deviation from the subject matter were evident. Three of the mothers expressed some dissatisfaction with the book, Children: The Challenge (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964).

All participants agreed that the sessions should be held on a weekly basis with most indicating that the two-hour sessions were of adequate length. Eight of the mothers indicated that there were not enough sessions to cover all of the material and suggested that either additional programs be offered or that the number of sessions be extended. One mother suggested that the final session be postponed for about one month to give families an opportunity to practice the principles discussed in the group. It became evident that follow-up sessions to reinforce principles was a critical aspect of programs of this type.

The most common suggestion for change was that both parents be invited to participate in the program. Some mothers reported conflict with husbands because of attempts to change while attending the program. A similar recommendation has been made by Buckland (1971).

It was also recommended that having mothers with children of similar ages as in this investigation was highly desirable. As one mother commented, "there was considerable empathy and understanding and

this probably made the group more interesting, other than theoretical and academic".

When given the opportunity to choose between formally directed discussions with specific questions and examples as opposed to more varied discussion with role playing, the mothers were divided in their preferences. Since attitudes appear to be most readily changed by taking on another's point of view, provision for role playing in this program as in others would seem to be an important change which might be instituted. In cases where initial difficulties in communicating are present among group members, the group process might be facilitated by experience in communications exercises (Gordon, 1970, 1972).

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APPENDIX A

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

FOR PARTICIPANTS

SUGGESTIONS TO PARTICIPANTS

Adapted from a paper prepared by the

Oregon Society of Individual Psychology

The idea behind parent study discussion groups is that ordinary people can learn something by reading, and then getting together to discuss, in their own non-expert terms.

Parent study group leaders serve the function of organizing and presenting material, as well as leading the discussion. Although they will have attended parent study group leaders' meetings, they are usually unpaid volunteers who have been interested in seeing parent groups started. Their role is not one of teaching or lecturing. Therefore, considerable responsibility for what happens in the group is placed upon each group member.

This is your group and no one is going to give you all the answers. The group will be a stimulating, enjoyable experience just in proportion to the interest and energies you contribute to it. If you want to learn to think for yourself, don't sit back waiting for the leaders to perform some magic. It is impossible to make a choice of only one opinion; but if several opinions are given, then choices can be made. You come to the group to talk about ideas presented in the book. To form your own opinions about the author's ideas and their proper application, you must understand them. When you read to get the most value, you'll inevitably find some questions which puzzle you. Think them through as far as you can, jot them down and come prepared to put them to the group. Don't wait until you are asked to speak - say what you think and be ready to back it up. But be sure others have plenty of chance, too, by keeping your comments brief. You learn more when you hear your own ideas modified, supported or opposed by others. Try to get the other person's point of view, by asking for examples, illustrations and reasons. You need not wait for the leader to ask questions.

Profitable conversation begins when everyone is thinking and talking on the same question. Once your group has found the problem, keep it in mind as the discussion goes on. If you find the discussion wandering, help to get it back on the track. When one question has been examined, be ready to go on to another even if you haven't yet made your point. Chances are the group will get back to it from another angle which may make it easier for you to get your point across.

ASSIGNMENTS MUST BE READ IN ADVANCE in order to make discussion stimulating.

OUTLINE GUIDE FOR CHILDREN: THE CHALLENGE - PARENT STUDY GROUP

Session	Discussion Topics	Book Assignment	Handouts in Study Session Handbook	Homework
I	Introduction to program Family Atmosphere Family Constellation Purpose of Behavior		Suggestions to participants Outline Before/After Sheet Parents' Specific Principle Schedule Family Constellation (Pepper) "Homework" Assignment for Parents	1. "Homework" Assignment for Parents (Lowe) 2. Establish a playtime and have fun together 3. Consider the family constellation and note how you tend to reinforce your child's interpretation of his position in it.
II	Encouragement	1. Present Dilemma 2. Understanding the child 3. Encouragement 26. Mind Your Own Business 35. Have Fun Together	Why Not Praise? (Soltz) Some Words of Encouragement (Reimer) Children Learn What They Live	1. Listen to yourself for one week and record the kinds of comments that you hear yourself making to your children and also to other adult members of your family. 2. Practice encouragement.
III	Goals	4. The Child's Mistaken Goals 8. Show Respect for child 11. Eliminate Criticism	Children Do Not Do Things Unless They Have a Reason (Toronto) Goal Recognition (Bullard) Mistaken Goals Chart	1. Look for examples of goals as displayed by your child's behavior.
IV	Resolving Conflicts	5. The Fallacy of Punishment and Reward 6. The Use of Natural and Logical Consequences 7. Be Firm Without Dominating	But Punishment Works (Soltz) When To Use I.P. Methods (Soltz)	1. Practice using natural and logical consequences.
V	Toward Social Responsibility	15. Avoid Giving Undue Attention 16. Sidestep the Struggle For Power 17. Withdraw From The Conflict 29. Follow Through - Be Consistent	Working Toward Increased Social Responsibility Heard at Study Group Meetings Give Me a Job	1. Withdraw from power struggles.

Session	Discussion Topics	Book Assignments	Handouts in Study Session Handbook	Homework
VI	Order in the Home Training Time	9. Induce Respect For Order 10. Induce Respect For The Rights of Others 12. Maintain Routine 13. Take Time For Training 18. Action! Not Words	The Towel on the Floor Sharing Responsibility Rules About Rules	1. Take time for training. 2. Allow children situations in which choices must be made.
VII	Family Communications	14. Win Cooperation 31. Listen! 32. Watch Your Tone Of Voice 38. Talk With Them, Not To Them 39. The Family Council	12 Popular Roadblocks To Communications Defensive And Secure Communication Climates Four Steps In Problem Solving The Family Council (Soltz) Some Questions And Answers	1. Practice listening. 2. Try having a family council.
VIII	Developing Courage And Independence	22. Refrain From Over-Protection 23. Stimulate Independence 25. Be Unimpressed By Fears 27. Don't Feel Sorry	Inferiority Feelings (Bullard) A Memorandum From Your Child	1. Count the number of times for one day that you do something for the child that he could do for himself. Then, never do for the child what he can do for himself. 2. Stay out of fights!
IX	Making Home Life Pleasant	19. Don't Shoo Flies 20. Use Care In Pleasing: Have The Courage To Say "No" 21. Avoid That First Impulse: Do The Unexpected 24. Stay Out Of Fights! 28. Make Requests Reasonable And Sparse 30. Put Them All In The Same Boat	Making Family Life Satisfying Only-Child For A Day	1. Each member brings in a list of three places for the family to go in the community. 2. Apply your new skills

Session	Discussion Topics	Book Assignments	Handouts in Study Session Handbook	Homework
X	Courage To Be Imperfect Review	33. Take It Easy 34. Downgrade "Bad" Habits 36. Meet The Challenge of TV 37. Use Religion Wisely	Some Principles For Living With Children Evaluation Forms	

PARENTS' SPECIFIC PRINCIPLE SCHEDULE

The Toronto Association of Individual Psychology

WEEK OF	PRINCIPLE	COMMENTS	RESULTS

BEFORE/AFTER

Developmental Career Guidance Project

Tucson, Arizona

The purpose of the parent study groups is to help parents learn new techniques for improving parent-child relationships. The information you give below will help you evaluate what you have learned from the study groups.

Describe briefly three typical situations that would be likely to occur between you and your child. Following the description, state exactly what you do when the situation occurs.

The situations you describe should be ones that concern, annoy, or irritate you and that you would like to change.

1. _____

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2. _____

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3. _____

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THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FAMILY CONSTELLATION

By Mrs. Floy Pepper, Teacher and Counselor

Oregon Society of Individual Psychology

In this study we shall be concerned with the child's experiences in the family. His opportunities and barriers, challenges and expectations, ambitions and frustrations are strongly influenced by his position in the birth order of the family. An insight into these dynamic forces can aid the parents or adults in taking a more effective course of action.

Of greatest concern in this relationship is the impact of the family upon the personality of the child. These experiences in the family are the most important determinants for his frame of reference for perceiving, interpreting, and evaluating his world outside the family. The knowledge, habits, and skills which he acquires in the home largely determine his capacity for dealing with outside situations.

A basic assumption is made that personality and character traits are expressions of movement within the family group. This is in contrast to other assumptions which attribute the main development to heredity, psycho-sexual development, general individual development principles, or strictly environmental stimulations. The concept of the family constellation as a dynamic explanation, sees the development not so much the result of factors which converge on the child, but that of his own interpretation and related interaction. He influences the group and other members of the family as much as he is influenced by them, and in many cases, even more so. His own concepts force them to treat him the way he expects to be treated. Each child in his early relationships to other members of the family establishes his own approaches to others in his effort to gain a place in the group. All his strivings are directed towards a feeling of security--a feeling of belonging--that the difficulties of life will be overcome and that he will emerge safely and victoriously. Dreikurs states that "he trains those qualities by which he hopes to achieve significance or even a degree of power and superiority in the family constellation".

Human beings react differently to the same situation. No two children born into the same family grow up in the same situation. The family environment that surrounds each individual child is altered. The environments of the children within the same family may be different for several reasons.

1. With the birth of each child, the situation changes.
2. Parents are older and more experienced.
3. Parents may be more prosperous and own home.
4. Parents may have moved to another neighborhood.
5. Possibility of step-parent--due to divorce or death.

Other possibilities or factors which may affect the child's place

within the family group are: a sickly or crippled child, a child born just before or after the death of another, an only boy among all girls, an only girl among all boys, some obvious physical characteristic, an older person living in the home, or the favoritism of parents toward a child. Adler states that "the dangers of favoritism can hardly be too dramatically put. Almost every discouragement in childhood springs from the feeling that someone else is preferred. Where boys are preferred to girls, inferiority feelings amongst girls are inevitable. Children are very sensitive and even a good child can take an entirely wrong direction in life through the suspicion that others are preferred".

Adler taught that in the life-pattern of every child there is the imprint of his position in the family with its definite characteristics. He pointed out that it is just upon this one fact--the child's place in the family constellation--that much of his future attitude towards life depends.

The Only Child

The only child has a decidedly difficult start in life as he spends his entire childhood among persons who are more proficient. He may try to develop skills and areas that will gain approval of the adult world or he may solicit their sympathy by being shy, timid, or helpless.

1. Usually is a pampered child--and if a boy has a mother complex.
2. If boy, sometimes feels that his father is his rival.
3. Enjoys his position as the center of interest.
4. Usually is interested only in himself.
5. Sometimes has a feeling of insecurity due to the anxiety of his parents.
6. Usually is not taught to gain things by own effort; merely to want something is to have it.
7. If his requests are not granted, he may feel unfairly treated and refuse to cooperate.

The First Child

The first child has a threatened position in life; his being the oldest should entitle him to the favored spot, and frequently does. However, he may become discouraged upon the birth of the second child, and refuse to accept responsibility.

1. Is an only child for a period of time and has therefore been the center of interest.
2. Has to be first--in the sense of gaining and holding superiority over the next children.
3. Becomes a "de-throned" child with the birth of the second child. (Sometimes feels unloved and neglected. He usually strives to

keep or to regain his mother's attention by positive deeds; when this fails, he quite often switches to the useless side and may become obnoxious. If his mother fights back, the child may become a problem child.)

4. Could develop a good, competent behavior pattern or become extremely discouraged.
5. Sometimes strives to protect and help others in his struggle to keep the upper hand.
6. Sometimes death wishes or expressions of hate are directed toward the second child.
7. If the first child is a boy followed by a sister--within a short time:
    a. Personal conflict may become a pattern of sexual discord.
    b. Girls develop faster than boys during one to seventeen and press closely on the heels of the first child.
    c. The boy usually tries to assert himself because of social preference for boys and may take advantage of his masculine role.
    d. The girl may develop a feeling of inferiority and pushes on.

The Second Child

The second child has somewhat of an uncomfortable position in life and usually takes a steam-engine attitude, trying to catch up with the child in front and feels as though he is under constant pressure.

1. Never has his parents undivided attention.
2. Always has in front of him another child who is more advanced.
3. Feels that the first child cannot be beaten which disputes his claim of equality.
4. Often acts as though he were in a race. Hyperactive and pushy.
5. If the first child is successful; the second is more likely to feel uncertain of self and his abilities.
6. Usually is the opposite of the first child. (If the first child is dependable and "good"--the second may become undependable and "bad".)
7. Becomes a "squeezed" child whenever a third child is born.

The Youngest Child

The youngest child has quite a peculiar place in the family constellation and may become a "speeder" because he is outdistanced and may become the most successful; or he may become discouraged and have inferior feelings.

1. Is often like an only child.
2. Usually has things done for him-decisions made, and responsibility taken.
3. Usually is spoiled by the family.
4. Finds himself in an embarrassing position--is usually the smallest, the weakest and above all--not taken seriously.
5. May become the "boss" in the family.
6. Either attempts to excel his brothers and sisters or evades the direct struggle for superiority.
7. May retain the baby role, and place others in his service.
8. Often allies with the first child as being different from the rest.

The Middle Child of Three

The middle child of three has an uncertain place in the family group--and may feel neglected. He discovers that he has not the privileges of the youngest nor the rights of an older child.

1. May feel unloved and abused.
2. Becomes a "squeezed child" whenever a third child is born.
3. May hold the conviction that people are unfair to him.
4. May be unable to find his place in the group.
5. May become extremely discouraged--and more prone to become a "problem child".

Middle Children--Large Family

Children who come in the middle of a family usually develop a more stable character, and the conflict between the children tends to be less fierce. In other words, the larger the family, usually the less conflict and strife among the children.

Generalizations

Every brother and sister has some pleasant feelings and some unpleasant feelings about each other. They are likely to have pleasant relations when they satisfy one another's needs. Since each child feels differently toward each brother and sister, the relationship of any two of them is very special. "As each member strives for his own place within the group, the competing opponents watch each other carefully to see the ways and means by which the opponent succeeds or fails. Where one succeeds, the other gives up; where one shows weakness or deficiencies, the other steps in. In this way competition between two members of the family is always expressed through differences in character, temperament, interests and abilities. Conversely, the similarity of characteristics always indicates alliances. Sometimes, the two strong-

est competitors show no sign of open rivalry, but rather present a close-knit pair; nevertheless, their competitive striving is expressed in personality differences. One may be the leader, the active and powerful protector, while the other may lean and get support by weakness and frailty. There are cases where strong competition did not prevent a mutual agreement, but rather permitted eacn to feel secure in his personal method of compensatory striving".

If there is quite a number of years between the birth of children, each child will have some of the characteristics of an only child. Perhaps there will be two families--one set of children, then a space of years, then another set. Whatever combination may first exist, with the space of years the situation changes and shifts, but basically the above characteristics remain the same.

The development of an only girl among boys or of an only boy among girls presents a ticklish problem. Both usually tend to go to extremes --either in a feminine direction or masculine role. In most cases, both would be somewhat isolated and have mixed feelings and emotions. Whichever role seems to be the most advantageous will be the one adopted.

"Every difficulty of development is caused by rivalry and lack of cooperation in the family. If we look around at our social life and ask why rivalry and competition is its most obvious aspect--indeed, not only at our social life but at our whole world--then we must recognize that people everywhere are pursuing the goal of being conqueror, of overcoming and surpassing others. This goal is the result of training in early childhood, of the rivalries and competitive striving of children who have not felt themselves an equal part of their whole family".

From the moment of birth the child acts, thinks, and feels in response to his world in accordance with how he experiences or perceives it; and the way in which he experiences or perceives his world is to him--reality. What actually happens to the individual is not as important as how he interprets the situation. With this in mind, we must remember that it is not the position in the family sequence that is the decisive factor, but rather the situation as the child interprets it.

The child's position in the family sequence shows how a child uses his situation and the resulting impressions to create his style of life, his pattern of movement and his characteristic traits.

"HOMEWORK" ASSIGNMENT FOR PARENTS

Adapted from R. N. Lowe, Community Parent-Teacher Education Centers, Eugene, Oregon

Between now and next week's meeting, try to practise constant observation of the interactions between parents and their children (in their homes or in public places) and take note of the following.

1. How do the parents act toward their children? Is the attitude friendly and courteous or critical, cross, impatient and nagging? Is the child treated as one would treat a friend?

2. Which do parents do--request or order the child to do something or to stop doing something?

3. Are bribes used as incentives?

4. Are parents' orders accompanied with threats?

5. Is corporal punishment used? Is the child berated? Is the parent's attitude that of the educator or the punitive authority?

6. Is the child being "disciplined" (i.e., punished) as the parent thinks people expect him to be, rather than in a way that will actually benefit the child?

7. Are adult standards and manners being forced on young children? Are adult requirements inappropriate? (Such as a 2-year-old being forced to share, or a young child asked to sit still too long, or young children required to have impeccable table manners?)

8. Is the child being humiliated in public when he "lets the parent down" (such as not saying "thank you" or shaking hands, etc.)? Does this encourage him to do better?

9. Is the child being reproved for faults that parents excuse in themselves? (Such as being late, telling lies--even "white" ones--not coming immediately when called, not telling where one is going and when one is expected to return, etc.)

10. Does the adult talk so much that the child becomes "mother deaf"?

11. Does the adult realize that respect must be earned, not demanded?

12. Does the adult show approval more than he or she corrects?

Does he or she like as well as love? Does he or she encourage the child?

In the following week, try to become aware of the interaction between yourself and your own children. Be a non-critical observer, simply noticing your own attitudes and habits of action with the children, without judging yourself in any way. As your awareness grows, you will spontaneously discover those situations in which you feel a change of behaviour would be helpful. You are then in a position to consider implementing new ideas.

WHY NOT PRAISE?

Vicki Soltz

Most of us have grown up believing that praise is desperately needed by all children in order to stimulate them into "right" behavior. If we watch a child closely when he is receiving praise we may discover some astonishing facts. Some children gloat, some panic, some express "so what", some seem to say, "Well, finally"!

We are suddenly confronted with the fact that we need to see how the child interprets what is going on rather than assume that he regards everything as we do.

Examination of the intention of the praiser shows that he is offering a reward. "If you are good you will have the reward of being high in my esteem". Well, fine. What is wrong with this approach? Why not help the child learn to do the right thing by earning a high place in parental esteem?

If we look at the situation from the child's point of view, we will find the mistake of this approach.

How does praise affect the child's self-image? He may get the impression that his personal worth depends upon how he "measures up" to the demands and values of others. "If I am praised, my personal worth is high. If I am scolded, I am worthless". When this child becomes an adult, his effectiveness, his ability to function, his capacity to cope with life's tasks will depend entirely upon his estimation of how he stands in the opinion of others. He will live constantly on an elevator --up and down.

Praise is apt to center the attention of the child upon himself. "How do I measure up"? rather than "What does this situation need"? This gives rise to a fictive-goal of "self-being-praised" instead of the reality-goal of "what-can-I-do-to-help".

Another child may come to see praise as his right--as rightfully due him from life. Therefore, life is unfair if he doesn't receive praise for every effort. "Poor me--no one appreciates me". Or, he may feel he has no obligation to perform if no praise is forthcoming. "What's in it for me? What will I get out of it? If no praise (reward) is forthcoming, why should I bother?"

Praise can be terribly discouraging. If the child's efforts fail to bring the expected praise he may assume either that he isn't good enough or that what he has to offer isn't worth the effort and so gives up.

If a child has set exceedingly high standards for himself, praise may sound like mockery or scorn, especially when his efforts fail to

measure up to his own standards. In such a child, praise only serves to increase his anger with himself and his resentment at others for not understanding his dilemma.

In all our efforts to encourage children we must be alert to the child's response. The accent must move from "What am I"? (good?) to "How can I help in the total situation"? Anything we do which reinforces a child's false image of himself is discouraging. Whatever we do that helps a child see that he is part of a functioning unit, that he can contribute, cooperate, participate within the total situation, is encouragement. We must learn to see that as he is, the child is good enough.

Praise rewards the individual and tends to fasten his attention upon himself. Little satisfaction or self-fulfillment comes from this direction.

Encouragement stimulates the effort and fastens attention upon one's capacity to join humanity and to become aware of interior strength and native capacity to cope.

Praise recognizes the actor, encouragement acknowledges the act.

Praise	Encouragement
Aren't you wonderful to be able to do this!	Isn't it nice that you can help?
	We appreciate your help. Don't the dishes shine? (after wiping) Isn't the carpet pretty now? (after vacumming)
	How nice your room looks!
	Thanks for watching the baby. It was a big help.
	I like your drawing. The colors are so pretty together.
	How much neater the room looks now that your toys are put away.
	How nice that you could figure that out for yourself. Your skill is growing!
I'm so proud of you for getting good grades. (You are high in my esteem.)	I'm so glad you enjoy learning (adding to your own resources).

Praise	Encouragement
I'm proud of you for behaving so nicely in the restaurant.	We all enjoyed being together in the restaurant.
I'm awfully proud of your performance in the recital.	It is good to see that you enjoy playing. We all appreciate the job you did. I have to give you credit for working hard.

SOME WORDS OF ENCOURAGEMENT

Clint Reimer

Oregon Society of Individual Psychology

These thoughts are intended to be of help to parents and teachers in working with children. Whether these suggested remarks will in fact be encouraging will depend on the attitudes of the adults using them. Is the feeling one of belief in the child, trust, confidence, acceptance, sometimes mixed with humor or is the feeling one of moralizing, preaching, or impatience?

1. "You do a good job of . . ."
   Children should be encouraged when they do not expect it, when they are not asking for it. It is possible to point out some useful act or contribution in each child. Even a comment about something small and insignificant to us may have great importance to a child.

2. "You have improved in . . ."
   Growth and improvement is something we should expect from all children. They may not be where we would like them to be, but if there is progress, there is less chance for discouragement. Children will usually continue to try if they can see some improvement.

3. "We like (enjoy) you, but we don't like what you do."
   Often a child feels he is not liked after he has made a mistake or misbehaved. A child should never think he is not liked. It is important to distinguish between the child and his behavior, between the act and the actor.

4. "You can help me (us, the others, etc.) by . . ."
   To feel useful and helpful is important to everyone. Children want to be helpful; we have only to give them the opportunity.

5. "Let's try it together."
   Children who think they have to do things perfectly are often afraid to attempt something new for fear of making a mistake or failing.

6. "So you do make a mistake; now, what can you learn from your mistake?"
   There is nothing that can be done about what has happened, but a person can always do something about the future. Mistakes can teach the child a great deal, and he will learn if he does not feel embarrassed for having made a mistake.

7. "You would like us to think you can't do it, but we think you can."

This approach could be used when the child says or conveys that something is too difficult for him and he hesitates to even so much as try it. If he tries and fails, he has at least had the courage to try. Our expectations should be consistent with the child's ability and maturity.

8. "Keep trying. Don't give up."
When a child is trying, but not meeting much success, a comment like this might be helpful.

9. "I'm sure you can straighten this out, (solve this problem, etc.) but if you need any help, you know where to find me."
Adults need to express confidence that children are able and will resolve their own conflicts, if given a chance.

10. "I can understand how you feel (not sympathy, but empathy) but I'm sure you'll be able to handle it."
Sympathizing with another person seldom helps him, rather it conveys that life has been unfair to him. Understanding the situation and believing in the child's ability to adjust to it is of much greater help to him.

CHILDREN LEARN WHAT THEY LIVE

Dorothy Law Nolte

If a child lives with criticism he learns to condemn.

If a child lives with hostility he learns to fight.

If a child lives with fear he learns to be apprehensive.

If a child lives with pity he learns to feel sorry for himself.

If a child lives with ridicule he learns to be shy.

If a child lives with jealousy he learns what envy is.

If a child lives with shame he learns to feel guilty.

If a child lives with encouragement he learns to be confident.

If a child lives with tolerance he learns to be patient.

If a child lives with praise he learns to be appreciative.

If a child lives with acceptance he learns to love.

If a child lives with approval he learns to like himself.

If a child lives with sharing he learns about generosity.

If a child lives with honesty and fairness he learns what truth and justice are.

If a child lives with security he learns to have faith in himself and in those about him.

If a child lives with friendliness he learns that the world is a nice place in which to live.

If a child lives with serenity he will live with peace of mind.

With what is your child living?

CHILDREN DO NOT DO THINGS UNLESS THEY HAVE A REASON

Adapted from "How To Be a Good Parent" by Kay Whitmore

The Toronto Society of Individual Psychology

Sometimes children are bad just to keep you busy.

Example: A child picks his nose. Mother does not like this. She tells him not to do it. The child soon knows that this is a good way to keep his mother busy with him. He picks his nose more just to keep her busy. The mother does not know it, but she is encouraging the child to be bad.

Understand the Child's Goal

A child has a purpose for everything he does. His first goal is to have a place in the family. A happy child has found his place in the family. This child does what he is supposed to, like being helpful, for example. The unhappy or bad child tries in the wrong way to feel important in the group.

Example: A child is not allowed to help at home. His parents tell him he is not big enough to do anything. This child does not feel important. He does not think he has a place in the group. The only way he feels important is to be bad. By being bad he keeps his mother busy. His mother will yell at him. When the mother is busy with him, he feels important. He feels like a part of the group.

The Four Goals of Children Who Don't Behave

Most of the time a child does not know why he does the things he does. Neither do his parents. A child acts a certain way because he thinks he has a place and is important when he acts that way. All bad behavior is done for one of these reasons:

Goal I — Keeping people busy: He wants people to notice him all the time.

Goal II — Feeling powerful: He wants to be the boss.

Goal III — Getting even: He wants to hurt us.

Goal IV — Proving he is "good-for-nothing": He wants to be left alone. He does not want anyone to ask him to do things.

PARENTS CAN FIND THE CHILD'S GOAL by watching the way they act toward the child.

Examples:

1. When a child's goal is keeping people busy, parents become angry. They become angry because they must tell him to do things all the time.

2. When a child's goal is feeling powerful, parents become angry and try to be stronger than the child. Parents think, "The child cannot get away with this".

3. When a child's goal is getting even, parents feel hurt. They feel sorry for themselves. Parents think, "How can he be so mean?"

4. When a child's goal is proving he is a "good-for-nothing", parents feel very discouraged. Parents do not know what to do. They give up.

Do you act in one of the above ways? If you do, then you know the goal of your child.

A CHILD TO WANT TO BE BOSSY HAS A PARENT WHO IS BOSSY

Most of the time a child who wants to be boss has a parent who wants to be too bossy. When a mother always wants her own way, her child tries to act like her. He wants his own way all the time, too. The mother and child fight against each other. The child does not do what the mother wants. Parents who try to boss their children do not get what they want from their children. Fighting teaches a child that only bossy people get what they want. Fighting also makes a mother and child unhappy with each other. A mother has something better to do than fight with her child.

Every Behavior Has A Purpose

Each time a person does something he does it because he has a purpose in doing what he does. A person's reasons for doing something always have something to do with other people. Most of the time a person does not know why he does some things.

All Behaving (Good or Bad) Is Moving In Life

To know how a child moves in life, you can watch him. You can

watch him do everyday things. You can watch the way he acts with other people.

> Example: A child is slow every morning. He forgets to do things he is supposed to do. His mother has to tell him what to do. She has to tell him over and over again or he will forget. At school the teacher has to tell him what to do. She has to push him to get him to work. What is this child doing with other people? This child is making other people serve him. He is not becoming responsible in a good way for himself. He may always try to move in life without being responsible in a good way for himself.

Each Child Wants A Different Place In The Average Family

Each child wants to be good at something. If one brother or sister is very good in school work or is very well liked by others, the other child in the family may be good in something else. This happens when one child feels he cannot do as well in something as the other child, so he gives up at it and tries another thing. If one brother is very good in school, the other brother may become discouraged about school. He may become very good in sports. Parents who are too eager to make children better make them different instead. The more parents tell each child to win at something the more the children will be different.

Feeling Useful Is Important For Each Child

Each child has his own ideas about whether he is wanted or not. Sometimes his feelings about himself are not the same as his parent's feelings about him. Feeling wanted cannot be found outside a person. It can only be found when a child feels strong inside. To feel wanted, a child needs:

To be strong - "I will take a chance."

To be sure - "I will be able to do it."

To have hope - "Everything will be okay."

Parents who are strong, sure, and have hope, help their children to be strong, sure, and to have hope. It is just as easy to teach a child to be strong as it is to teach him to be afraid.

GOAL RECOGNITION

M. L. Bullard

Community Parent-Teacher Education Centers

Eugene and Corvallis, Oregon

Comments by Dr. Dreikurs

"The trained observer has no difficulty in recognition of the child's goals and in classifying the category in which a particular behavior belongs." "The recognition of the child's goal is the basis for his treatment." "Different approaches are indicated for each goal".

Goal 1: Attention Getting Mechanisms (AGM's)

"Attention getting is almost universal in our young children before school age; it should disappear gradually during the first few years of school."

Active Constructive: AGM's

1. Impression of excellence with purpose of praise and recognition. (They are often the delight of parents.)
2. Cute remarks.
3. Performing for attention.
4. Stunts for attention.
5. Being especially good, reliable, cooperative, industrious (maladjustment becomes apparent in situations where they cannot gain praise and recognition).

Passive Constructive: AGM's

(This is usually not recognized as misbehavior.)

1. Excess pleasantness.
2. Excess charm.
3. The "model" child.
4. Exaggerated conscientiousness.
5. Bright sayings (The purpose is to gain attention: If behavior continues too long, the child does not wish to relinquish and may change to destructive methods).

Active Destructive: AGM's

1. The show-off.

2. The clown.
3. Obtrusiveness.
4. The walking question mark.
5. The "enfant terrible".
6. Instability.

Passive Destructive: AGM's

1. Bashfulness.
2. Lack of ability.
3. Instability.
4. Lack of stamina.
5. Fearfulness.
6. Speech impediments.
7. Untidiness.
8. Self-indulgence.
9. Frivolity.
10. Anxiety.
11. Eating difficulties.
12. Other performance deficiencies.

Note of Caution: Any of these characteristics may appear in the child and not be an attention getting mechanism. If it is an attention getting mechanism, the child will cease its actions when reprimanded. If the action continues after reprimand, it may be considered a symptom of a stronger goal.

In any event the total situation of the child must be examined--the interactions between various members of the family, particularly between parents and child. It may copy successful actions of siblings but is more likely to use an opposite approach.

Goal 2: Power

General characteristics: The power struggle is similar to destructive attention getting, but is more intense and a reprimand intensifies the misbehavior. During a power struggle no interrelationship is too trivial to be used as an opportunity for challenge.

Active Destructive: Power

1. Argue.
2. Contradict.
3. Continue forbidden habits.
4. Temper tantrums.
5. Bad habits.
6. Untruthfulness.
7. Dawdling.

Passive Destructive: Power

1. Laziness.
2. Stubborness.
3. Disobedience.
4. Forgetting.

Goal 3: Revenge

General characteristics: Child does things to hurt others; this may be for a limited time or in specific situations; may be the regular approach depending upon the degree of hostility. Being disliked serves to attain a social position.

Active Destructive: Revenge

1. Vicious.
2. Stealing.
3. Bed-wetting.

Passive Destructive: Revenge

1. Violent passivity.

Goal 4: Displaying Inadequacy ("Give-up")

Child assumes real or imagined deficiency as a means to safeguard prestige (inferiority complex).

Passive Destructive (only form)

Prevents anything being demanded of them.

1. Indolence.
2. Stupidity.
3. "Inaptitude"
4. "Hopeless"

Note: Progression beyond these behavioral methods becomes a pathological reaction. Here occur the nervous disorders, psychosis, and psychopathic personality.

Significance and Use of Goal Recognition

Unless a child's goals and reasons for his behavior are discovered, psycho-dynamics of the child and the social relationships remain obscure.

The child is not aware of the purposes of his actions (goals). Many children stop their questionable behavior when they are made aware of its purpose.* It is easy to bring the purpose to his attention to make him aware of it (recognition reflex).

When confronted with "could it be . . .", the child smiles quickly or gets a twinkle in his eyes if the diagnosis of the goal is correct. If a wrong diagnosis is made, he may respond with a denial or a stare.

There are two exceptions, usually in older children: (1) the one who has such control over his facial expressions, he doesn't demonstrate any feelings, and (2) the one who covers by laughing constantly and finding everything funny.

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* Dr. Dreikurs has discovered that, for the most part, parents do more damage than good in attempting to disclose to the child the purpose of his misbehavior. Therefore, the discussion on this point in Children: The Challenge on page 64 represents Dr. Dreikurs' present thinking in place of that expressed in The Challenge Of Parenthood.

V. Soltz

CHILD'S MISTAKEN GOALS

By Mrs. Nancy Pearcy - Oregon Society of Individual Psychology

Goal of misbehavior	What child is saying	How parent feels	Child's reaction to reprimand	Some corrective measures
ATTENTION	I only count when I am being noticed or served	Annoyed Wants to remind, coax Delighted with "good" child	Temporarily stops disturbing action when given attention	Ignore behavior, not child Answer or do the unexpected Give attention at pleasant times Set up positive activity for the child
POWER	I only count when I am dominating, when you do what I want you to do	Provoked Generally wants power Challenged "I'll make him do it," "You can't get away with it".	Intensifies action when reprimanded Child wants to win, be boss	Extricate self Act, not talk Be friendly Establish equality Redirect child's effort into constructive channels
REVENGE	I can't be liked, I don't have power, but I'll count if I can hurt	Hurt, mad "How could he do this to me?"	Wants to get even Makes self disliked	Plan a fun time Extricate self Win child Maintain order with minimum restraint Avoid retaliations Take time and effort to help child
INADEQUACY	I can't do anything right so I won't try to do anything at all! I am no good	Despair "I give up"	No reprimand, therefore, no reaction Feels there is no use to try Passive	Encouragement (May take long) Faith in child's ability

"BUT PUNISHMENT WORKS!"

Vicki Soltz

"Punishment works for me", declared a mother. "So, what's wrong with it? I slapped Johnny's hand often enough and he finally stopped picking his nose."

It is true that many times punishment does seem to work. So let us examine this situation more closely. To begin with, we should figure out what we mean when we say "it works". We mean that the child has stopped the behavior for which he was punished. But, for how long did he stop? Mother admitted that she slapped her son's hands quite often. One slap didn't work for long, so she had to do it time and again. When he finally stopped picking his nose, she thought it was because he didn't like being slapped for it. This may look like a good reason; but the interaction between mother and son gives a different picture. So let us look, then, at the interaction and what it means.

Johnny picks his nose. This gets Mother's goat. She slaps. Let us apply the rule that we can usually tell what a child hopes to gain by his action if we look at Mother's response. Now we can see that Johnny wanted to get a rise out of Mother. His act is in defiance of her command. She says, "Don't pick your nose"; his behavior says, "I will". Therefore, we can see a power contest in which the child scores several times for each victory gained by Mother. Johnny has gained his point. He has continued to do the forbidden. And Mother's violent reaction is only a declaration of her bankruptcy. Quite a game: True, Johnny had to pay the price of a slap; but he is quite willing to do so. He has shown Mother that he will when she says he won't. If this is true, why did Johnny stop his disagreeable behavior? Because he was slapped? Because he lost the battle? Hardly. He stopped because the issue no longer interested him. He got bored with it. Chances are he has found another way to show his power.

Punishment does not fit into a democratic setting. The right to punish belongs to a superior power who decides what another shall or shall not do. Since children have gained the right to decide for themselves what they will do, they have become our equals. While we cannot force the child's decision, we still may be able to influence them.

If Mother would promote a situation where Johnny gained nothing by his act, she might influence him to stop. She cannot achieve this with a futile show of power. But she can stimulate him to reconsider. To do so, she can accept Johnny's decision to pick his nose, and decide what she will do (not what she will make Johnny do). She can quietly say, "I don't like to touch your fingers when they have been in your nose", and refuse to touch his hands or let him touch her. Now Johnny has little to gain by picking his nose and much to gain by stopping. Of course Mother must remain friendly in all other respects. She may pat him on the head, kiss him on the back of the neck, or continue any other

form of affection that avoids the hands. After his bath at night she can tell him, "Your hands are clean now, how about a hug?" Such a course will be much more effective and take less time.

It may seem strange at first to consider that a child is willing to accept pain in order to gain something. However, observation has shown that children will bear anything to gain their hidden goals. If we hope to train our children for the democratic way of life, for a life of satisfaction in participation and usefulness, we must learn to use the democratic techniques which will guide them to become situation-centered, rather than self-centered.

WHEN TO BEGIN USING I. P. METHODS

From OSIP Newsletter

Mothers in parent study groups often ask, "How old should my child be before I start using these Adlerian methods in training him?"

If you remember Dr. Dreikur's reply, it would be, "From the day of his birth, because if you aren't training him, he is training you".

Yvonne Thomas, teacher of the Behavior Problems Class of the Corvallis Elementary Schools, brought to our attention that the Sioux Indians also believed and practiced this answer. In the book, In Old Jules Country, Mari Sandoz, the author, describes how as a girl of eight she peered into the dusky interior of the tepee where an Indian woman bent over the new baby on her lap. "At the noise of our excitement, the tiny red-brown face began to pucker up tighter, but the mother caught the little nose gently between her thumb and forefinger and with her palm over the mouth stopped the crying. When the baby began to twist for breath, she let go a little, but only a little, and at the first sign of another cry she shut off the air again." Thus it was "During the newborn minutes, that new born hour, Indian children were taught the first and greatest lesson of their lives--that no one could be permitted to endanger the people by even one cry".

Another instance of early training--"Before Young One was two months old it was decided he must learn to swim 'before he forget it' the older mother told us . . . . The woman carried the child to a quiet spot along the river bank, and with her hands under chest and belly, she eased the baby into the shallow, tepid water until it came up around him" . . . after a few attempts he dog paddled for himself. The ability to swim was necessary to self-preservation.

At an early age the Indian child learned to make his own decisions, and take the responsibility for his actions. "When the baby began to crawl, no one cried, 'No, no' and dragged him back from the enticing red of the tepee fire. 'One must learn from the bite of the fire to let it alone' he was told when he jerked his hand back and whimpered. He soon would discover where warmth became burning."

WORKING TOWARD INCREASED SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Alfred Adler Institute of Chicago

The amount of social interest a child acquires determines the success and happiness of his later life.

Qualities for social interest (responsibility) include:

1. Has a good opinion of himself (high self-esteem)
2. Has confidence in himself
3. Feels he belongs (in particular situations, in the world)
4. Is independent (does not manipulate others)
5. Respects rights of others
6. Feels concern for others, mankind, human welfare
7. Encourages others
8. Is willing to share
9. Wins and holds friends
10. Is optimistic, forward-looking
11. Is cooperative
12. Puts forth genuine effort
13. Achieves success in normaltasks of life . . . friendship, marriage, occupation
14. Remains encouraged on occasional failures
15. Can solve problems
16. Accepts responsibility willingly
17. Contributes to the whole
18. Is situation centered (needs of situation)
19. Thinks in terms of "we", rather than "I".

HEARD AT STUDY GROUP MEETINGS

From OSIP Newsletter, November-December, 1965

"When I see all those misbehaving children at the park, and just one being good, I think that one must be sick."

The sharing of experiences and mutual assistance by mothers was so well illustrated at the first meeting of one study group. A young mother said, "I am here because I am so frustrated. It seems I can't make my little 15-month-old daughter do what I think she should. For instance, she will not go to sleep unless I stand by her bed and pat her head--and sometimes it takes an hour".

"Why don't you put her to bed and leave the room?", she was asked.

"If I do, she will cry for an hour or more, and I can't stand to hear her cry", the mother replied.

"Would you like to know how we handled that same problem at our house?",asked a vivacious brunette. "I couldn't stand to hear the crying either, but my husband could. So I would put our baby to bed, get my coat and go for a long walk. When I returned the baby was asleep, and hubby was absorbed in his studying. It took about three evenings of this, and the baby cried no more at bedtime." (Note: It worked for the first mother, too.)

"My son had me at his beck and call" related a mother. "I finally realized this one morning when my husband would not let me go out to help and sympathize with my five-year-old Johnnie when he fell off his trike. Johnnie yelled and yelled. The other children tried to help him up, and he shouted, 'Let me alone. I want my mother to help me'. He lay there. No help came--so finally he got up and went on playing. We both learned something that day."

How early do children reach the goal of revenge in misbehavior? Five-year-old Betty had been taken home by the neighbor woman because she had taken the neighbor's turtle out of the bowl and let it run away in the yard, and then said Tommy had done it. Imagine the neighbor's surprise the next day to see Betty in the yard pulling up the marigolds.

Is this a switch? The three-year-old daughter knocked on the bathroom door, and called, "Mama, you may come out now. I will be a good girl".

GIVE ME A JOB

Lucille E. Hein

Published in Living for

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"Give me a job." "Give me something to do." "Let me help you." Is there a household in which such pleas are not heard once in a while from a child of six or ten or twelve? Children want to work. They have their routine of household life, school, homework, religious activities, clubs, sports, music or dance lessons. And they have their play. Their days seem too full of activity. Still, a child will tag after you and beg, "Give me a job".

A child wants to feel useful. He wants to feel he is necessary in the household. He wants to be trusted with responsibilities. He may feel far more grownup at school than at home, because at school he has jobs and responsibilities from the time he enters kindergarten. At home his parents may do everything for him. They may never ask him to work or expect him to work. Maybe his parents' answer to his plaintive "Give me a job", is usually, "Go play".

Play is not always a good answer. Play is not always satisfying. If your child wants a job, find him a job. A wise parent usually has a couple of jobs in mind or on a list. Take advantage of his eagerness to work at something. Work teaches. It teaches self-discipline, promptness, neatness, reliability, responsibility, the importance of serving others, the dignity of work. In apartment-house living, parents complain that there are so few jobs for children. Nonsense. There are a dozen jobs, a hundred jobs that a child of six or twelve could do. A house with attic, basement, garden, lawns, garage does not offer more jobs than the city apartment, just different jobs.

Some household jobs only an adult can do, some a six-year-old can do. Why should you shuck the corn you bought at the roadside market? Your six-year-old might like this job. He will do it differently. He may strip each ear husk by husk and the silken tassel thread by thread. He may take forever to do what you can do in five minutes. What does it matter, if the job is done? Maybe he wants to linger over the job because he has no other activity in mind. This may be his relaxing time. The child who has a job to do has respect for himself. Adults respect him. And adults respect the parents who give their child a chance to work. Other children who are not trusted with responsibilities by their parents may even be envious. A little friend says to your daughter, "Let me go with you to the store. My mother never gives me errands to do". And as your son starts the power mower, his friend begs, "Let me mow part of your lawn. They never let me mow ours".

No mother who has one child or several should be doing all the

dishes or all the table-setting or all the bedroom cleanup. No father should be doing all the outside jobs. Give your child a chance to help. He is an able assistant once he knows that his help is needed and appreciated. A child sometimes has a more creative approach to a job than the adult to whom it is daily routine. Your daughter might suggest cleaning all the coats with vacuum attachments after she listens to you lament that you have no outdoor place to air woolen clothes. Your son might wash the tiled bathroom floor by a method that makes you wince--but the result is likely to be a clean floor.

Some parents answer the child's need for jobs and responsibilities by assigning simple jobs. Some children respond best to regular assigned jobs. One mother lists on the blackboard each morning the small jobs that her ten-year-old daughter and eight-year-old son are expected to do that day. Perhaps there are three ten-minute jobs for each child, to be done before or after school or sometime during the day. "Once I write their assignments on the board, I refuse to be bothered", she says. "I'm deaf to all arguments. They are never difficult or impossible jobs. There's a lot of muttering and groaning, but by the end of the day they're done. Not only are they done, but my tough son still loves me. And my daughter, who tries to sneak out of jobs, tells me it was fun to wash the dishes with the new pink liquid soap."

In another family, in the summertime, the children are "yard birds" until they have made their beds and tidied their rooms. Until these chores are done, they must stay home and no one can come into the yard to play with them. There is nothing harsh about this. They are old enough for the jobs. In fact, the children agreed during a family-job council that these were jobs they would do each day. "A child becomes proud of having such jobs", this mother says. "I had my reward one morning when the gang stopped by on the way to the swimming pool. My daughter appeared at the window and shouted importantly, 'We'll be out as soon as we finish our rooms. We're helping mother. Don't any of you have to make your beds?' Why, my child was actually scornful of those children who didn't have jobs of their own! "

In other families a list of jobs tacked to the kitchen bulletin board is the favorite way of offering jobs to a child. For some children this approach is better than a regular assignment of small jobs. A list gives the element of choice. On a list of twenty jobs there might be one that would appeal right now because it is raining. On the list there might be just the right job to fill that restless half-hour before dinner when your son follows you around the kitchen and says, "What can I do?" If you post a list, it should have jobs that are suitable to the various ages and abilities of your children. Some fun jobs, some suprise jobs, some serious hard-work jobs. Some jobs that take five minutes, some that take an hour. Indoor and outdoor jobs. Jobs that depend on the season and the weather. Daytime jobs and evening jobs. Some at-home jobs, some away-from-home jobs. The list should not be permanent. When a child does a job, he can scratch it from the list with the feeling that he has accomplished something. New jobs can be added--by parents and by children. Include a few tasks that you know

you can do better and more efficiently than a child. But let a child tackle them, because this is the way he learns. If you cannot stomach the way your son or daughter bungles one of your jobs, do it over, but in secret. Next time he will do the job much better.

Your list could be headed with a provocative phrase: "If you're bored, try one of these". "Want to help? Here's how." "Jobs waiting to be done. Anyone interested?" The list might include five jobs or fifty. When a child has done some household chore from the list, notice him at it. We all like to be praised and complimented and thanked. In your praise, show him how his work has helped you or helped the household to run on a smooth track or made life more pleasant for someone--perhaps even more pleasant for himself. Never begrudge thanks. Watch a child sparkle when you say, "I liked the way you moved so carefully around the flower beds". "Thanks for finishing the ironing. You gave me time to bathe the baby." "How cleverly you have arranged all your toys and books. May I bring Mrs. Smith up to look at your room?"

A child resents the nagging in the adult voice when you ask him to do little chores. He closes his ears to the repetition of, "Please take the dog for a run". "Did you take the dog out?" "I asked you to take the dog out." We adults cannot help but nag because a child is so exasperating at times. If "take the dog for a run" were on the list of jobs taped to the kitchen wall, he might choose it eagerly without parental nagging or prodding. Perhaps it is the impersonality of a job-reminder list that pleases the child.

When a child does a household job that an adult might ordinarily do, he matures. He thinks, "They can't get along without me". Unconsciously, he begins to realize that everyone has a role in family life, that running a household means the whole family cooperates. He becomes aware of the many jobs there are to be done, even though he is not capable of doing all of them. A child who knows and shares in the household routine is a value and a comfort in an emergency. Your daughter of ten or twelve can take over temporarily if you are ill in bed or have to make a sudden trip to a sick relative. She can put together a simple meal. She will make the beds. She will remind her father that today is laundry day. She rises to the emergency until a neighbor or relative or baby-sitter comes to run the household in the mother's absence. The reason a child can rise to emergencies is because his parents have given him the opportunity to make household responsibilities within his capabilities. He is proud. He feels that his parents depend on him, recognize his abilities, need him. This is a good feeling. It is, in fact, a growing-up feeling.

THE TOWEL ON THE FLOOR

Vicki Soltz

Jack, 9, drove Mother to distraction by messing up the bathroom. He left the towel on the floor, the water dripping, and the soap in the basin. No matter how much she talked, or even yelled, Mother still had to clean up after him and hang the towel up. She presented the problem at a counseling session.

Since it was obvious that Mother and Jack were in a power contest, the solution lay in withdrawal. How could this be accomplished and still maintain order? It was suggested that Mother ask Jack where he would like to keep his towel and then follow through on the answer even if he wanted it on the floor. Mother agreed to this suggestion with some reluctance, since she is a very fine housekeeper.

At the following meeting, Mother, greatly amazed, reported that when asked the question, Jack had looked dumbfounded. After a moment's thought, he said he would like to have his own towel rack put at his level. Daddy immediately complied. Even after two weeks there has been no further disorder in the bathroom.

Withdrawal from the contest was indicated to Jack when he was asked what he wanted. This took him by surprise. His response indicated a relatively good relationship between Mother and son. As soon as the pressure was off, he could recommend a solution. He complied with the request for order when respect for his needs was recognized and met. Rather than concentrating on a show of power, Mother had turned her attention to the needs of the situation and won cooperation.

SHARING RESPONSIBILITY

Mary Ann Haak

Certain basic principles are helpful to remember when assigning duties or jobs to family members. Below are a few to keep in mind.

1. Children have rights as well as responsibilities. If these rights are arbitrary or impulsively withdrawn by the parent, the child will feel no personal responsibility toward the home. He will feel that nothing belongs to him, and therefore, it is not really his problem.

2. Children should be consulted about the jobs that need to be done around the home. After they have helped identify the work, then they must help decide who will have the responsibility of doing each job.

3. Allow the children choices in which jobs they would like to do. (Not doing anything is not one of the choices.) They must then follow through with their choice or suffer the consequences.

4. Place appropriate time limits on when a task should be finished. If the child helps in setting up the time limits, the consequences will seem "more logical" to him.

5. Vary the tasks to do. Children become easily bored with the same thing. They like the challenge of a new or unusual job.

6. Use common sense in the number of tasks expected of each child. He may stage a "sitdown" strike if he perceives the parent as just using him to get the work done.

7. Remember you are a model of "order" to your child. Do not expect orderliness or cleanliness from them that you would not expect of yourself.

8. Examine your own standards. Perhaps you are a perfectionist about your house or feel uncomfortable if things are slightly out of order. Learn to accept your house as a place of comfort for your family, not as a reflection of your worth as a person.

9. Sometimes in our efforts to keep material possessions "nice" children begin to feel that the possessions are more important than they are. This may discourage children from wanting to keep these possessions neat and clean.

RULES ABOUT RULES

Parent Education Association, Columbia, Missouri

A rule is a prescribed guide for conduct or action.

Rules establish orderly routines that give boundaries and dimensions to our lives. They are bad when they are unreasonably and forcibly imposed and when they are presented in a manner that incites rebellion against them. Rules are beneficial to everyone when they set up and maintain a system of order in the home and contribute to cooperation, harmony, and feeling of security among family members. There are several rules about setting up rules that all parents should know and follow:

1. Rules are more cheerfully and willingly followed when all members of the family have a voice in making them. Usually, parents make rules without asking for their children's views, and then command the children to follow them. Time after time it has been found that children, when given a voice in setting up family routines, are highly responsible in the rules they prescribe. They cooperate much better when their opinions are solicited . . . even very small children.

2. A good rule must be definable and understood by all parties. It must specify exactly what it has been agreed will be done, when, where, how, and by whom. Preferably, each rule should be written out and posted.

3. A good rule must be reasonable. For instance, if a chore is required to be done faster than it can be done (or logically will be done), it is unworkable and will be resisted. If a rule requires more ability to follow than a child possesses, the rule will cause frustration for everyone. The parent may need to teach the child how to follow a rule before expecting the child to comply with it.

4. A good rule should be attached to specific and known consequences that will occur when it is broken. For example, a rule is established that all members of the family should be at the dinner table at 6:00 p.m., and that anyone who misses without prior notification and agreement also misses the meal. A "price" should be attached to failure to conform to rules that have been established by group consensus. Parents also should live up to and abide by rules, and pay an agreed upon penalty when they fail to follow rules that apply to them. When they "model" rule-breaking, they invite their children to do the same.

5. A good rule can deteriorate into no rule if parents are inconsistent in their attitude toward it. All members of the family

need to expect rules applying to all members to be consistently followed. When a member fails to follow a rule, usually all that is necessary is to ask the person: "What is the rule?"

6. A good rule is not so rigid and compliance so insistently demanded that it becomes a joyless ritual. When other, more important activities come up that compete with compliance with the rule, the rule should be waived if arrangements are made to swap duties or to comply with the rule at a different time. When rules interfere with warm, friendly relations and perpetuate power struggles, they should be abandoned and new ones discussed.

12 POPULAR ROADBLOCKS TO COMMUNICATIONS

BETWEEN PARENTS AND CHILDREN

Reprinted from International Adlerian Study Group Newsletter

The widely used communication forms presented here seem, on first impression to be perfectly legitimate methods of communication from parent to child. But try this interesting experiment; turn each message around and have it coming from child to parent. If you, a parent, were on the receiving end of the twelve categories of communication listed on this sheet, how do you suppose you would react? Would you be inclined to feel warm and friendly toward the child? Would you be eager to cooperate with him? Read and decide.

1. DIRECTING, ORDERING, COMMANDING
   You must . . . you have to . . . you will . . .

2. WARNING, THREATENING, ADMONISHING
   You had better . . . if you don't, then . . .

3. MORALIZING, PREACHING, OBLIGING
   You should . . . you ought . . . it is your duty . . . it is your responsibility . . .

4. PERSUADING WITH LOGIC, ARGUING, INSTRUCTING, LECTURING
   Do you realize . . . here is why you are wrong . . . yes, but . . . the facts are . . . this is not right . . .

5. ADVISING, RECOMMENDING, PROVIDING ANSWERS OR SOLUTIONS
   What I would do is . . . why don't you . . . let me suggest . . . it would be best for you . . .

6. EVALUATING, JUDGING NEGATIVELY, DISAPPROVING, BLAMING, NAME CALLING, CRITICIZING
   You are bad . . . you are lazy . . . you are not thinking straight . . . you are acting foolishly . . . your hair is too long . . .

7. PRAISING, JUDGING OR EVALUATING POSITIVELY, APPROVING
   You are a good boy . . . you have done a good job . . . that is a good drawing . . . that is a nice thing to do . . .

8. SUPPORTING, REASSURING, EXCUSING, SYMPATHIZING
   It is not so bad . . . don't worry . . . you will feel better . . . that's too bad . . .

9. DIAGNOSING, PSYCHOANALYZING, INTERPRETING, READING IN, OFFERING INSIGHTS
   What you need is . . . what is wrong with you is . . . you are just trying to get attention . . . you don't really mean that

10. QUESTIONING, PROBING, CROSS EXAMINING, PRYING, INTERROGATING
    Why . . . who . . . where . . . what . . . how . . . when . . .

11. DIVERTING, AVOIDING, BYPASSING, DIGRESSING, SHIFTING
    Let's not talk about it now . . . not at the dinner table . . . forget it . . . that reminds me . . . we can discuss it later . . .

12. KIDDING, TEASING, MAKING LIGHT OF, JOKING, USING SARCASM
    Why don't you burn down the school . . . when did you read a newspaper last . . . get up on the wrong side of the bed? . . . When did they make you boss of this outfit? . . .

DEFENSIVE AND SECURE COMMUNICATION CLIMATES

Parent Education Association, Columbia, Missouri

TO HELP THE CHILD FEEL INSECURE, WORTHLESS:	TO HELP THE CHILD FEEL SAFE, WORTHWHILE:
1. Continually judge the child. Scold, blame and criticize him a lot. Always show him how wrong he is, how right you are. When he speaks up, put him down. Remind him of his ignorance, inexperience, and proneness to error.	1. Play down personalities. Discuss specific problems with the child. No matter whether the child is right or wrong, experienced or inexperienced, he's still a VIP (very important person) and always worth listening to.
2. Seek to control by applying pressure. Try to stop, start or change the child. Manipulate or use force in getting the child to see things your way. After all, you're the Boss.	2. Invite the child to share responsibility for solving problems. Work together to improve conditions. Avoid trying to impress child of your greater knowledge, rightness, or general superiority.
3. Be detached, disinterested, indifferent. Have little concern or respect for the child. If the child balks at seeing things your way, simply don't care. Be a neutral, cool cat.	3. Show real interest in the child and his viewpoint. Respect him and his opinion. Care about the outcome of your discussion. Help the child be right instead of proving him wrong.
4. Use tricks and maneuvers to get your way. Hide your real purpose. Think it's OK to use deceit or to "snow" the child to get your way. Bribing is a swell gimmick, too.	4. Be open about your aims. Be spontaneous instead of sneaky. Frankly admit what's in it for you. Negotiate and compromise if it's called for.
5. Flaunt your superior size and/or wisdom. Use your position to browbeat, frighten, intimidate and subdue the smaller child. Never let the child have a say in what's going on. After all, he hasn't lived, and you have.	5. Show the child he is an equal--OK as a person. How? By respecting his views, feelings, opinions. Make suggestions and requests but refrain from orders, commands, and demands. Use peaceful persuasion instead of trying to dominate and coerce.
6. Be dogmatic, utterly certain of your divine rightness. Stubbornly and without offers to comprise, stick to your guns. Be the final authority	6. Offer your views as flexible and only tentative. You could be mistaken. You are willing to change your mind in the fact of other evidence and you welcome it.

TO HELP THE CHILD FEEL INSECURE, WORTHLESS:	TO HELP THE CHILD FEEL SAFE, WORTHWHILE:

on everything. You know it all!

(Based on research by Dr. Jack Gibb on communication styles.)

FOUR STEPS IN PROBLEM SOLVING

Rudolf Dreikurs, M. D.

I. Mutual respect established:

Grant each other the legitimacy of his stand.

II. Pinpointing the real issue(s) which are not apparent:

Not "Can I have the car? etc.", instead, determine the conflict of status. The issue is who wins and who loses. Personal reasons.

Power: Who is above whom?
Who will have his own way?

May also be need for excitement: significance; need to realize purpose.

Neither fight nor give in.

III. Change at the current agreement:

Stop the current agreement which is to argue, fight. Decide not to fight.

Dialogue: Concentrate on what I am doing. What can I do to make things better? Can only change own role. This puts responsibility where it belongs; no blaming others.
Only when you know both people's behavior, can you change role and establish agreement.

IV. Everybody must participate in making decision:

Shared responsibility; don't exclude "enemies"; enemies have no responsibility.

Child and parent decide together:
Help each other
Listen to each other
Decide how to solve common problem
What can be done together
(when majority decides, minority violates decision).

Participation in decision making gives adults a chance to influ-

ence child's behavior.

Discuss both advantages and disadvantages of consequences of behavior.

Use Family Council to stimulate agreement of all; use group pressure all in the same boat.

THE FAMILY COUNCIL:

PRACTICE IN PRINCIPLES OF EQUALITY

Vicki Soltz

Should Congress fail to meet, the citizens of the U.S. would express considerable alarm. We can say as much for the democratic family which tries to function without a Family Council. If a democratic approach to living is to be maintained in the home, regular meetings over the conference table are as vital as are the scheduled sessions of Congress.

Whenever two or more people live or work together there will be conflicts of interest from time to time. In the past, such conflicts have been received through fighting in which the stronger won out over the weaker or through authoritarian demands of the superior over the inferior. In either case, one person remained on top while the other felt pushed down. Adler has expressed a universal law: "Those who feel pushed down seek to rise". It is the inner awareness of this law which has caused mankind to move toward democracy with its concepts of equality.

While we in America possess greater equality than anywhere else in the world, we still lack a deep understanding of its implications in our daily lives. Democracy means more than a system of government; it has become a way of life based on mutual respect.

It is not at all easy for adults to view children as their equals. Nor is it easy for people in general to treat each other with respect. We are all in the process of learning how to live together as equals. This learning process requires the replacement of old ideas with new ones. We all must abandon the idea in whatever form it takes that we have to be better than or bigger than the next one. For whenever we act in a manner to show another we are bigger or better than he, we violate the universal social law and push the other person down. He now seeks to rise. This teeter-totter interaction increases conflict, which results in friction and disharmony.

Perhaps the idea that each member in the family is equal to all others will make more sense if we consider exactly what we mean by equality. The English language uses this word to express two concepts. Two plus two equals four. "Equal" in this sense means "the same as". However, in interpersonal relationships, no one person is ever "the same as" another. Each has his own talents, capacities, concepts, and approaches. What each and every individual has in common is the right to choose, the right to decide. This is the basis for equality. It holds true even in situations where one is in a total bind and must go only one way. While it seems one has no choice, he nonetheless still chooses how he will feel about the situation. Will he feel resentment? Anger? Hostility? Rebellion? Despair? Or will he feel acceptance?

Courage? Will he make the best of a bad situation?

Respect for this right to choose what one will do, this right to decide for oneself, must be the foundation for family council meetings. This means that each person respects the right of others to choose and at the same time respects his own right to decide. It means that no one has the right to decide for another what he will do, nor has he the obligation to accept imposition of another's decision for him. This latter is particularly important for today's parents who too frequently allow their children to rule them.

Unfortunately, our experience has been that parents not yet skilled in thinking in terms of equality misuse the family council as a new means for lecturing a captive audience or for imposing their desires upon the children.

If a decision has been made to establish regular meetings, it must be done in the spirit of conferring--of finding out how each individual in the family feels about a given friction point and what can be done by the family as a whole to make matters better.

Oddly enough, one does not vote. We have come to consider the voting process as a symbol of the democratic process. In a representative government, voting is required, and the will of the majority carries. But in the family, each person represents himself and voting simply does not work. Why?

In most families children unite in an alliance, either to defeat the parents or to gain their own ends over rival brothers and sisters. If a vote is called for, the alliance is strengthened and a deadlock results. Suppose a family of six meet to plan a day of fun. The question, "Where would you like to go?" is posed. One child wants to go to the zoo, another wants to go swimming, a third wants a picnic and the fourth holds out for a movie. "Let's vote", Daddy suggests. Each child votes for his own choice! Nothing has been gained.

Or, suppose six children in a family vote for a new home. Six against two. The children's vote carries! Must the parents buy a new home? Of course not. In the family, voting merely declares "sides" and sets up opposing teams--the very thing the family council desires to lessen!

The only solution is to come to an agreement. In order to do so, each member is obligated to forego his personal preference and examine the problem from the viewpoint of the needs of the total situation. Nor can there be "compromise". To compromise means to yield--to give in--for now. The person who "gives in" feels pushed down and will seek to rise. Compromise upsets rather than fosters a desirable balance.

Let us return to the four children, each with a different idea of what to do for an afternoon of family fun. How can the situation be resolved? Suppose both parents take it easy, avoid the desire to control

the situation, and let the children work it out. Humor helps. "Well, all of a sudden we need to be four families! Suppose each of you in turn tells us why your choice is best for all of us for today." As the children move into the act and try to convince each other of the virtue of his own choice, the discussion widens, viewpoints change and agreement becomes possible. Agreement is reached only if each feels satisfied at the logic of the total situation. If no agreement can be reached, the matter must be tabled until the next meeting. The natural consequences of lack of agreement is that no one goes anywhere!

As the family gains skill in conducting meetings, it is possible to move on to a discussion of areas of strife. Each member may bring up anything which bothers him. Whatever problem exists for one person affects the total family.

For example, Bobby leaves his bike lying in the driveway. Daddy comes home, has to get out of the car, move the bike, is irritated, comes into the kitchen and yells at Mother. She is busy getting dinner on the table and becomes upset at Daddy's yelling. "What do you want me to do about it?" A fight is started. Dinner for the whole family gets off to a bad start and suddenly both parents are picking on the children's table manners. A chain reaction resulted, affecting the whole family.

At family council meeting, Daddy might say, "I have a problem. Whenever I come home and find Bobby's bike in the driveway, I get annoyed and blow up, and it affects everyone. Has anyone an idea of what can be done to help me?"

The problem has been stated. The person involved has acknowledged his need for help. The whole family is asked to consider the problem and seek a solution.

It is impossible for one individual alone to solve democratically a problem which involves another. To do so is to impose his will upon the other. While it may be difficult for parents to acknowledge that they need help from children, this is the only procedure possible in a democratic atmosphere. This creates a situation of equals looking for a solution to a common problem. Parents can't be "super-humans" and at the same time show respect for children and for themselves. We all have our feet on the same level.

Perhaps the most important attitude for the conference table is, "Let's see". What is the problem? How does it look to each other member? How can it be solved? How many solutions can be suggested? Which might work best? Which shall we try? Such an attitude helps us practice mutual respect--a regard for the other person's viewpoint and his right to make choices.

SOME QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

The Toronto Association of Individual Psychology

My husband (or wife, or children, etc.) is not interested in a Family Council. Should I have one anyway?

One should not let the Family Council be the source of conflict in the family. Usually, after the Family Council has been going for a while, the formerly reluctant member of the family will join.

I have no husband. Is the Family Council a good idea?

Yes, a family with one parent needs a Family Council even more than a two-parent family.

How many people have to be in the family and how old do the children have to be?

Even a two-person family can benefit; any child who can talk can attend and participate.

Suppose children try to take over the Family Council?

We expect that each person who participates will try to get what he wants, and we expect coalitions between various interest groups. This is good. The concept of the Family Council is that it is a union of equals, some older than others, some stronger, some more intelligent --but still equals who have to be heard from and dealt with. No person or group can dominate the Family Council, neither parents nor children, for a decision by one group will not be binding for another unless agreement is reached.

If a person does not behave well during a meeting, nothing at all is to be done! No one has the right to tell him to shut up, to be quiet, or to behave himself. Remember, this is a voluntary group, and so each person has the right to behave just as he wants. But every person has the right to leave the meeting if he doesn't like what is going on.

So, if at a particular meeting, Peter starts acting silly, giggling, laughing, and talking incessantly, first mother may leave, then father, then older sister--and Peter has the floor and the meeting all to himself. But nobody is to tell him to stop. At the next meeting, no mention is to be made of anyone else's behavior in the past, but once again, if someone misbehaves, it is best for the others to wait as long as possible for the disrupter to stop and then if it takes too long, for the various individuals to leave the meeting. It may take

some time before each member of the family learns to cooperate.

Does the Family Council have to be so formal with all sorts of rules?

No. Each family decides the degree of formality it desires. In some families, a secretary is elected who keeps minutes or a new chairman is elected every session. Everyone has to raise his hand every time he wants to speak. There are a large number of rules of conduct. In other families, there are no rules. The family members just assemble for the purpose of free discussion.

Every family has to develop its own system. We find that it is best in the beginning to have some degree of formality, meeting around a table, rules being established on the basis of group decision. As time goes on, formalities may go.

Is one supposed to complain at a Family Council?

Yes--and at no other time! Parents should learn to keep all their complaints for the Family Council, and if a child complains to them about another child or something else that can be referred to the Family Council, then the formula should be: "Bring it to the Family Council". One of the most important benefits of the Family Council is the effect it has on the family for the rest of the week. Parents will not listen to tattling, they won't make big scenes "on the spot", but they will keep all complaints for the Family Council. But during the week they can act, apply logical consequences, and maintain quietly the order within the family.

What is the Family Council for besides settling complaints?

The Family Council is for all family business: settling plans, planning parties and picnics, discussing vacations, negotiating allowances, dealing with visitors, taking up chores, establishing family rules, and so forth. Parents will try to reserve all decisions for the Family Council so everyone's opinions can be heard and so that decisions are made on as broad a basis as possible. No decisions are so urgent that they cannot wait for the next meeting.

How long should meetings last?

This varies with the family, the ages of the children, the amount of business at hand and other factors. In some cases, meetings have a set time for ending. In other cases, the meetings continue until all business has been settled.

What are some common mistakes in running a Family Council?

1. Not starting on time.

2. Cancelling meetings.

3. Meeting at mealtime.

4. Parental domination.

5. Getting discouraged.

6. Not following through on agreements. (When the children do not keep their agreements, the parents have no right to complain until the next meeting.)

To summarize these points: Parents must respect the Family Council, by being present on time; by meeting every time no matter whether they think that there is something important to be brought up or not; by talking only under circumstances when the others are willing to listen; by not acting in an authoritative manner; by not getting discouraged if meetings don't go well.

Is the Family Council a cure-all for all families?

No. Used properly with full understanding of the philosophy and theory of democracy in the family, the Family Council can be of great help in establishing better relationships, in having a more pleasant and orderly family.

What is the theory and philosophy of the Family Council?

Essentially, the basic theory is that all members of the family are equal and deserve respect and consideration. Only if all members feel that they are treated properly, will they cooperate. In a democratic society, the family has to be democratic if it wants peace and harmony. The family is the incubator of attitudes, of feelings, of sentiments, of habits, of behavior. If the family operates in an efficient, friendly, sensible and respectful manner, the children will learn to behave in the same way, as responsible and resourceful people. We are convinced that inherent in all children is the potentiality for these qualities. Used properly, the Family Council can produce such children.

INFERIORITY FEELINGS AND THEIR EFFECTS

Maurice L. Bullard

Corvallis School District No. 509J, Corvallis, Oregon

There are three main types of inferiority feelings and two of these can be beneficial.

1. (Good) Biological inferiority has caused man to form groups for protection, develop his intellect to use tools, and to generally become the master of nature.

2. (Good) A cosmic inferiority in which man realized his minuteness in the universe and his inevitable limit of earthly existence culminating in death. This inferiority has compelled him to achieve in philosophy, art, and religion.

3. (Destructive; it sets him up against others.) Social inferiority comes from the child's interpretation of his experiences of smallness in contrast to the size, power, and abilities of adults and older siblings.

This social inferiority may be a minimal amount with no harmful after-effects, or it may be so severe as to require medical care. The relationship within the family largely determines the extent and severity of these inferiority feelings. Mistaken methods of child rearing, even when stemming from the best of intentions are just as harmful as outright neglect, rejection, or sadistic treatment.

The importance of an understanding by parents and teachers of the dynamics of inferiority feelings can hardly be overemphasized.

Some Typical Obstacles to Social Development Leading to Inferiority Feelings

1. Spoiling and pampering (one of the worst obstacles).

2. Lovelessness, neglect, and rejection.

3. Anxiety, excessive supervision.

4. Excessive talking, extracting promises, nagging, fault-finding, disparagement.

5. Physical punishment and retaliation.

Dynamics of Inferiority Feelings

1. As the individual feels repulsed he acquires a subjective feeling of being "less" than others.

2. If spoiled, he underestimates his own strength regarding the superior strength of others as something to be taken for granted. If excessively suppressed, he comes to believe the superior strength of others will always be victorious.

3. This feeling of being "less" has a corollary feeling of others being "worth more".

4. The child or adult resents this feeling of being low on the scale and soon his actions will move in a direction of acceptance by some segment of the members of his community.

5. Any person who labors under a sense of inferiority tries to obtain power of some kind in order to cancel the supposed superiority of other people. His feelings of inferiority impel him to strive for significance. (Do not confuse this with the inferiority complex in which the individual quits striving.)

6. Inferiority feelings are faulty self-evaluations. Anyone who doubts his own value overestimates the capacities of others.

7. Neither the absence nor the presence of inferiority feelings is any index to a man's real value. Some extremely valuable and successful people suffer acutely from inferiority feelings. On the other hand, it is sometimes impossible to find a trace of inferiority feelings in a moron.

8. Human failures are not so much the cause of inferiority as they are the consequences of such feelings.

9. People with inferiority feelings tend to avoid social responsibilities to conceal their imagined deficiencies or to avoid possible failures.

10. Methods of avoiding social responsibility are two-fold. One method is to "run away" from the obligations thereby avoiding decisions, limiting the action, gaining time, or setting distances between themselves and other people. The real object is to conceal the assumed inferiority from others or ourselves.

The alternate method is to take some action to gain a special significance by achievement. If this is a "useful" achievement the person may appear to be perfectly capable of adapting himself to his community, although his deepest impulses are fear and tendency to retreat.

If, the motivations are on the "useless side of life", he wastes his energies and strength in condeming others, pushing them down and

inflating his own accomplishments. The price of these fictitious accomplishments may be his own suffering.

11. Some methods of disparagement:

    a. Open and cutting criticism.

    b. Posing an extravagant idealism, exaggerated moral tenents, or ethical principles set so high other people must appear small and worthless.

    c. Disparaging reality by engaging in daydreams and fantasy which relegate everyday-life into the background.

Summary

As the characteristics of inferiority feelings are understood the teacher may watch for their symptoms in behavior of children and adults. Since the several phrases pertaining to inferiorities have so many popular (and unpopular) meanings, it probably is better to speak of a situation in which the child has feelings of inferiority. The emphasis is then on constructive action rather than on "labeling".

A MEMORANDUM FROM YOUR CHILD

Adapted from The King's Business Magazine

Published by the Bible Institute of Los Angeles

Re: Me

1. Don't spoil me. I know quite well that I ought not to have all I ask for. I'm only testing you.

2. Don't be afraid to be firm with me. I prefer it. It lets me know where I stand.

3. Don't use force with me. It teaches me that power is all that counts. I will respond more readily to being led.

4. Don't be inconsistent. That confuses me and makes me try harder to get away with everything that I can.

5. Don't make promises; you may not be able to keep them. That will discourage my trust in you.

6. Don't fall for my provocations when I say and do things just to upset you. Then I'll try for more such "victories".

7. Don't be too upset when I say "I hate you". I don't mean it, but I want you to feel sorry for what you have done to me.

8. Don't make me feel smaller than I am. I will make up for it by behaving like a big shot.

9. Don't do things for me that I can do for myself. It makes me feel like a baby, and I may continue to put you in my service.

10. Don't let my "bad habits" get me a lot of your attention. It only encourages me to continue them.

11. Don't correct me in front of people. I'll take much more notice if you talk quietly with me in private.

12. Don't try to discuss my behavior in the heat of a conflict. For some reason my hearing is not very good at this time and my co-operation is even worse. It is alright to take the action required, but let's not talk about it until later.

13. Don't try to preach to me. You'd be surprised how well I know what's right and wrong.

14. Don't make me feel that my mistakes are sins. I have to learn to make mistakes without feeling that I am no good.

15. Don't nag. If you do, I shall have to protect myself by appearing deaf.

16. Don't demand explanation for my wrong behavior. I really don't know why I did it.

17. Don't tax my honesty too much. I am easily frightened into telling lies.

18. Don't forget that I love and use experimenting. I learn from it, so please put up with it.

19. Don't protect me from consequences. I need to learn from experience.

20. Don't take too much notice of my small ailments. I may learn to enjoy poor health if it gets me much attention.

21. Don't put me off when I ask HONEST questions. If you do, you will find that I stop asking and seek my information elsewhere.

22. Don't answer "silly" or meaningless questions. I just want you to keep busy with me.

23. Don't ever think that it is beneath your dignity to apologize to me. An honest apology makes me feel surprisingly warm toward you.

24. Don't ever suggest that you are perfect or infallible. It gives me too much to live up to.

25. Don't worry about the little amount of time we spend together. It is <u>how</u> we spend it that counts.

26. Don't let my fears arouse your anxiety. Then I will become more afraid. Show me courage.

27. Don't forget that I can't thrive without lots of understanding and encouragement, but I don't need to tell you that, do I?

<u>"KEY"</u>

TREAT ME THE WAY YOU TREAT YOUR FRIENDS, THEN I WILL BE YOUR FRIEND, TOO.

REMEMBER, I LEARN MORE FROM A MODEL THAN A CRITIC.

MAKING FAMILY LIFE SATISFYING

Clifford Adams

The Ladies Home Journal, March, 1962

"I don't know what's wrong in our home, but I don't think any of us is very happy. We seem to be in a rut. Our children of seven, ten and twelve years squabble among themselves, and our evening meal most days is noisy and disagreeable. About all we do is sit and watch the idiot box (my husband's name for television). The children sit up too late and they fight about which programs to watch. By the time they finally get to bed, John and I are both exhausted."

"He works hard at his job and I have my hands full with the work for a family of five. We don't get enough rest or any time together. The house looks a wreck all the time, and I have given up trying to keep it clean. I am sure John is discouraged, and I sure am. We keep telling ourselves that everything will be different when the children are older, but I've been saying that for five years and things are getting worse instead of better."

"There never is much extra money, and we wouldn't have this if John didn't work Saturdays at a second job. I suppose he and I get along about as well as the average couple married for fifteen years, but I keep thinking of our first two years of marriage, when I was working. We were so happy then compared with now. We wanted our children and we do love them, but I sometimes feel like going off by myself and never coming back. I would never do it, but it frightens me even to have such thoughts. I want our home and family life to be more satisfying, but I don't know how to make it so."

This mother's problem is quite common. Swamped by daily routine and the repetitive demands on her, she feels hopelessly bogged down. Though it is difficult to make specific suggestions without more detailed information about her particular circumstances, perhaps these ideas will be useful:

Discipline seems inadequate. The particular form of child rearing is a matter for the parents to decide but it always requires direction and control. Whatever the training, it should not be based on force, fear or withdrawal of love. No child can be emotionally secure without an abundance of affection, but he actually feels safer if he knows he must respect some rules and authority. Nor can he develop respect for others and accept appropriate responsibilities without firm and consistent discipline. Even a six-year-old can and must learn to respect the rights and wishes of others if he expects his own to be observed.

This wife's children can be of real help (though at first the instructions required of her will take more time than the tasks). Suitable chores should be assigned to them, and they should be praised for

adequate performance.

Play space must be provided. The living room should be an orderly family center, not a gymnasium. Perhaps the attic or basement can be converted to the children's use. We know one mother whose children take weekly turns using one of their two bedrooms for active play, and they respect her rule that the week's playroom must be put in order before they can come to supper.

Games should be supplied. Games and toys for any age level and ability can usually be found at the five-and-ten. Games can be interesting and at the same time stimulate learning and skill. But parents should participate, at least by helping the children understand the instructions and rules. If space and money permit, indoor games such as table pool and tennis, outdoor games like croquet and badminton, can provide fun for adults as well as children.

Television should be restricted. Television attracts children because they like action and noise, and it frees the mother from giving them attention. But this does not free her from seeing that they have a well-rounded program including active play, household chores, reading and study and developing independent interests and activities. Though some programs are excellent, no normal person, child or adult, should spend half his free time in passive captivity. If your child is already afflicted with "televisionitis", the only way to restore him to normal family activity may be to disable the set for a couple of weeks. When operation is resumed, tell your children when and what they may watch. Without some limits, you may be actually disabling your children.

Family projects are important. Sharing activities increases cooperation and solidarity. Devise undertakings in which everybody can take interest and pride; potted plants, a bird feeder, a garden in which each family member has a plot are possibilities. So are a Sunday drive, a Saturday movie, picnics or an occasional restaurant meal. Pets are desirable.

Reading aloud is valuable. When children are old enough, let them read their favorites to the whole family. "Dressing up" and acting out skits keeps the children busy and can amuse the adults--while they knit or sew or sneak a glance at the evening paper.

Communication is vital. It's almost impossible for a child to talk to parents who don't talk to each other. When parents don't share, they are not likely to share with their children or to build a confidential relationship with them.

Housework should be organized. With a little better planning, many wives and mothers could operate their households more efficiently and more enjoyably. During her children's school hours, this mother might attend to duties requiring care, concentration and freedom from interruption. She might even sandwich a coffee break and short nap into these hours; she could lessen her fatigue and be able to work more effectively.

When the children returned from school, she could attend to those chores in which they can be of greatest help. Aside from their assistance, the association would offer opportunities to talk to them, to learn about their friends and school activities, and listen to their wants and complaints. And as the children grow older, not only would her labor be lessened but also her relationship to her children would be more positive and understanding.

The home should be livable. Though perfectionism, whether in homemaking, a husband's job or children's behavior, is undesirable and unrealistic, everybody enjoys a home that is comfortable, livable and pleasant. When children are small, formality should be avoided. Furniture should be functional, and arranged for convenience rather than for appearance. Expensive furnishings or those easily marred should be avoided or protected. It is shortsighted to surround young children with bric-a-brac or other tempting objects that can be easily broken. The criterion every wife and mother should follow in home furnishing is not what the neighbors will admire, but what her husband and children will enjoy.

None of these suggestions, if adopted, will guarantee a happy marriage and home life, but each can contribute something worth while to harmonious and comfortable relationships among the members of the family. Why not read these suggestions again, and ask yourself if any of them applies to your family.

ONLY-CHILD FOR A DAY

Jacob A. Evans

Source Unknown

Ever hear of Carol Day? Jackie Day? Steve Day? Dotty Day?

To me, these are holidays. Like Columbus Day. Except they are more fun. In fact, these four holidays are the best holidays of my year. Well, maybe, after Christmas.

Only two people in the world celebrate these days. One is my daughter or son. The other is I. Four days each year one of my kids and I eschew family union in favor of a day together. Sans brother. Sans sister. Sans Mother. Just us.

The youngster is queen or king for the day. He may choose any activity or event, any restaurant, as long as time and Pop's wallet last. Six years ago, when my daughter Carol was 11, of all the restaurants in New York City, she chose the Automat. The next year, at a grownup 12, it was the Stork Club. Another time, Carol's plan-of-the-day began with a visit to the Metropolitan Museum of Art and ended with horse racing at Belmont Park.

Before I inaugurated these father and child "days", about 12 years ago, I, like many New Yorkers, had never been to the Statue of Liberty. Since then, I have climbed that tortuous, circular stairway, to Miss Liberty's head three times. And still, one to go.

If the sightseeing boat around Manhattan runs short of guides, I'm their man. The Empire State Building elevator operators call me by my first name. There's one orangutan at the Bronx Zoo who now gives me a welcoming hoot, no doubt wondering how many more kids we are going to produce.

Our holidays have revealed latent gourmet tastes. We have eaten in Polynesian restaurants, French restaurants, Indian restaurants, Japanese restaurants, Finnish restaurants. This year, on Steve Day, however, we had a problem. Noontime found us in the heart of Chinatown. Thousands of visitors from all over are attracted to the exotic oriental food of New York's Chinatown. Not my Steve. He wanted a hamburger. We got a hamburger too . . . 15 blocks away.

As a 12-year veteran of Kid Days, I have developed a sort of Father's Guide to Days on the Town. It runs something like this:

Age 4 - The zoo is the best starter.

Age 5 to 7 - The children's section of amusement parks, the circus, rodeos, movies, another trip to the zoo.

Age 8 and 9 - Sightseeing, museums, boat rides, beaches, visits to farms, aquariums, "exploring" trips, airports, children's concerts, circuses and amusement parks.

Age 10 and 11 - Sporting events, TV-radio studios, stage shows, newspaper plants, manufacturing plants, art galleries, beaches, good restaurants, botanical gardens, ice shows, planetariums, museums.

Age 13 to 16 - Plays, musicals, historical points-of-interest, sporting events, foreign restaurants, city hall, colleges, concerts, opera, art galleries, beaches, hiking or mountain climbing.

I wouldn't trade a single one of these holidays for a dozen Columbus Days. The best thing about them is not just seeing your kids have fun. You get to know them. You get to know what they are really like . . . sans brother, sans sister, sans Mother.

SOME PRINCIPLES FOR LIVING WITH CHILDREN

Developmental Career Guidance Project, Tucson, Arizona

Following are a number of principles suggested as a basis for living with children. They are reproduced for use with Parent-Study Groups.

1. GOLDEN RULE. "Do unto others as you would have others do unto you". This is the basis of democracy, since it implies equality of individuals.

2. MUTUAL RESPECT. Based upon the assumption of equality; the inalienable right of all human beings. No one should take advantage of another--neither adult nor child should be slave or tyrant.

3. ENCOURAGEMENT. Implies faith in the child as he is, not in his potentiality. A child misbehaves only when he is discouraged and believes he cannot succeed by useful means. The child needs encouragement as a plant needs water.

4. REWARD AND PUNISHMENT. They are outdated. A child soon considers a reward his right and demands a reward for everything. He considers that punishment gives him the right to punish others, and the retaliation of children is usually more effective than the punishment of adults.

5. NATURAL CONSEQUENCES. Requires utilizing the reality of the situation rather than personal power; can exert the necessary pressure to stimulate proper motivation. Most useful at the "attention getting" level. Only in moments of real danger is it necessary to protect the child from the natural consequences of his disturbing behavior.

6. ACTION INSTEAD OF WORDS. Suggested for use in times of conflict. Children tend to become "mother-deaf" and act only when raised voices imply some impending action, and then respond only momentarily. Usually the child knows very well what is expected of him. Talking should be restricted to friendly conversations and not used as a disciplinary means.

7. WITHDRAWAL--EFFECTIVE COUNTERACTION. Withdrawl is not surrender and is most effective when the child demands undue attention or tries to involve one in a power contest. He gets no satisfaction in being annoying if nobody pays attention.

8. WITHDRAWAL FROM THE PROVOCATION, NOT FROM THE CHILD. Don't talk in moments of conflict, but friendly conversation and pleasant contacts are essential. Have fun and play together. The less attention the child gets when he disturbs, the more he needs when he is cooperative.

9. DON'T INTERFERE IN CHILDREN'S FIGHTS. By allowing children to resolve their own conflicts they learn to get along better together. Many fights are provoked to get the adult involved and by separating the children or acting as judge we fall for their provocation, thereby stimulating them to fight more.

10. TAKE TIME FOR TRAINING. Teaching the child essential skills and habits is a requirement for parenthood. If a mother does not have time for such training, she will spend more time correcting an untrained child.

11. NEVER DO FOR A CHILD WHAT HE CAN DO FOR HIMSELF. A "dependent" child is a demanding child. Most adults underestimate the abilities of children. Children become irresponsible only when we fail to give them opportunities to take on responsibility.

12. UNDERSTANDING THE CHILD'S GOAL. Every action of a child has a purpose. His basic aim is to have his place in the group. A well-behaved and well-adjusted child has found his way toward social acceptance by conforming with the requirement of the group and by making his own useful contributions to it. The misbehaving child is still trying, in a mistaken way, to gain social status.

13. THE FOUR GOALS OF A CHILD'S MISBEHAVIOR. The child is usually unaware of his goals. His behavior, though illogical to others, is consistent with his own orientation.

    1. Attention getting . . . . . wants attention and service
    2. Power . . . . . wants to be the boss
    3. Revenge . . . . . wants to hurt
    4. Display of inadequacy . . . . wants to be left alone

14. REACTIONS TO A CHILD'S MISBEHAVIOR PATTERNS.

    1. Feel annoyed . . . . . wants you to remind and coax
    2. Feel provoked . . . . . "You can't get away with this."
    3. Feel deeply hurt . . . . . "I'll get even."
    4. Feel despair . . . . . "I don't know what to do."

15. FALLACY OF FIRST IMPULSE. By acting on our first impulse, we tend to satisfy the child's misbehavior patterns rather than to correct them.

16. MINIMIZE MISTAKES. Making mistakes is human. We must have the courage to be imperfect. Build on strength, not on weakness.

17. DANGER OF PITY. Feeling sorry for the child, while human, often

adds harm to an already tragic situation and the child may be more harmed by the pity than by the actual tragedy. Lifes satisfactions depend on one's ability to take things in stride. Feeling sorry for someone leads to self-pity and to the belief that life owes him something.

18. DON'T BE CONCERNED WITH WHAT OTHERS DO. Learn to accept responsibility for what we can do. By utilizing the full potential of our own constructive influence, we do not have to worry about what others may do to the child. Compensation for the mistakes of others is unwise and over-protection may rob the child of his own courage and resoucefulness.

19. FAMILY COUNCIL. Gives every member of the family a chance to express himself freely in all matters pertaining to the family as a whole and to participate in the responsibilities each member of the family has for the welfare of the family. It is truly education for democracy and should not become a place for parents to "preach" or impose their will on children, nor should it deteriorate into a "gripe" session. The emphasis should be on "what we can do about the situation".

20. HAVE FUN TOGETHER. Help to develop a relationship based on mutual respect, affection, confidence, trust, and feeling of belonging. Playing together, working together, and sharing interesting and exciting experiences lead to the kind of closeness which is essential for cooperation.

MID-SESSION EVALUATION

Adapted from Chicago Study Group Leaders Workshop

Vicki Soltz

Give your reaction to the questions listed below. Your evaluation will lead to improvement of further discussion sessions. Please underline the appropriate expression in each question.

1. What is your over-all rating of this discussion group?

   Very satisfactory, satisfactory, average, unimpressive, very unsatisfactory.

2. Do you feel the goals of the group are clear to everyone?

   Very clear, clear, unclear, muddled.

3. What progress do you think the group is making toward its goal?

   Achieving goal, much progress, some progress, very little progress, none.

4. How effective is the planning for these sessions?

   Outstanding, average, poor, very poor.

5. How effective is the leadership?

   Outstanding, effective, adequate, occasionally ineffective, unsatisfactory.

6. Do the leaders exercise effective guidance at the sessions?

   Outstanding, average, poor, very poor.

7. Do the members of the group seem to contribute to the extent of their ability?

8. How do you feel the group can be improved? What would make it more interesting, useful, enjoyable?

QUESTIONS FOR FINAL EVALUATION OF STUDY GROUP EFFECTIVENESS

Vicki Soltz

FORM 1

1. What is your over-all impression of the value to you of this group study?

   _____ Excellent _____ Good _____ Fair

2. In what ways have you found your family living has changed?

3. What aggravated or disappointed you about the sessions?

4. What suggestions do you have for improvement of future groups?

5. Would you recommend meetings be

   _____ Weekly _____ Every other week?

6. Any other thoughts or suggestions?

FORM 2

1. Were the number of sessions enough, not enough, too many?

2. Was the length of each session about right, too short, too long?

3. Was the material covered adequately, inadequately, too thoroughly?

4. Did the study group interpret and clarify the book sufficiently?

5. Did the leader lead adequately, dominate, deviate?

6. What were the leader's strong points?

7. What were the leader's weak points?

8. Which do you prefer: Formally directed discussions with specific questions and examples. More varied discussion sessions with role playing.

9. What changes would you recommend to improve future study groups based on your experience with the present group?

APPENDIX B

LETTER TO MOTHERS

September 4, 1974.

Dear Parent:

Since parents spend so much time with their children during their early years, they are the primary teachers in the child's life. However, they receive very little help in carrying out this most important task. Within the past few years, many parents have shown an interest in meeting with others to learn about different methods of child-rearing and to discuss problems which are important to them.

Are you interested in learning a more democratic approach to dealing with your child. Have you considered attending a parent study group?

Beginning in September, the Department of Educational Psychology of the University of Alberta with the support of the Edmonton Public School Board is conducting a research project on parent study groups and we are looking for mothers of 4 to 6 year-olds who are interested in participating. The main objective of the program is to help mothers learn methods aimed at developing social integration and self-sufficiency in the child. At the first meeting, mothers will receive a copy of the book, Children: The Challenge, by Dr. R. Dreikurs - a book which is written specifically for parents. Discussions in the sessions are to center around topics such as encouragement, mistaken goals, resolving conflicts, developing social responsibility and independence. In addition, specific exercises will be given to mothers to try at home. Sessions are to be conducted at the university and involve attendance at a two-hour meeting once each week for ten weeks.

Since this is a research project, no fee is involved. However, interested parents must be willing to attend the sessions and fill out a brief questionnaire on their family. They must also bring their children to the university for a twenty-minute videotaping session followed by a videotaped interview sometime in late November or December. It should be noted that all information will be kept confidential in accordance with good research ethics. Since we have a limited number of places available, your cooperation in fulfilling these requirements is essential.

If you wish to volunteer, please fill out the attached form and return it to Sharon Robertson before September 20. If you have any questions or require further information, you may contact Miss Robertson at 432-5807 from 2:00 - 5:30 p.m. and 7:00 - 9:00 p.m. on weekdays. Since our project must get underway, we will be contacting you shortly regarding the program.

Sincerely,

Sharon Robertson

Sharon Robertson, M. Ed.,
Ph. D. Candidate

J. G. Paterson

Dr. J. G. Paterson,
Professor of Educational Psychology,
Chairman of Supervisory
Committee for Research.

PROJECT PARENT

Name: _____ Telephone: _____

Address: _____

Birth Date of Child Between Ages 4 and 6: Year ____ Month ____ Day ____

Sex of Child: _____ Is this a single parent family? _____

When is your child attending kindergarten? a.m. ____ p.m. ____

Indicate afternoons and evenings on which you would be available to attend a study group.

	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.
afternoon	____	_____	____	_____
evening	____	_____	____	_____

If accepted into this program, I agree to fulfill the following requirements:

1. attend sessions;
2. complete a questionnaire on my family;
3. participate in a videotaped interview;
4. bring my child to the university for a short videotaping session.

_____

Signature of Mother

Return to: Sharon Robertson,
Department of Educational Psychology,
The University of Alberta,
Edmonton, Alberta.

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SUBJECTS

QUESTIONNAIRE

Name: _____

Address: _____ Telephone No. _____

Birthdate of child between ages 4 and 6: Year ____ Month ____ Day ____

Number of children in family: _____

Sex and ages of children: _____

_____

Education of	Father	Mother
Elementary (Grades 1-6)	_____	_____
Junior High School (Grades 7-9)	_____	_____
Senior High School (Grades 10-12)	_____	_____
College or University	_____	_____

Language most often spoken in the home: _____

Age Range of Mother: 20-30 ____ 30-40 ____ 40-50 ____

Have you attended a parenting program before? ____

If so, what program? _____

If you have not as yet attended a parent study group as part of this project, have you already read Children: The Challenge? ____

Have you or your child been involved in counseling sessions during the past six months? _____

APPENDIX D

PARENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

PARENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Beliefs and Attitudes

Control

1. What do you think are the best ways of managing the behavior of children:
   Do you think children's behavior ought to be managed?
   (Probes--ways of managing behavior)
   (a) spanking; (b) completely disregarding; (c) letting him know you are hurt; (d) behaving coldly; (e) sending to room; (f) depriving him of privileges (like watching TV or playing with a favorite toy).

2. Do you believe that parents know what is best for their children by and large? Do you think that children should obey their parents? Why? (If parent replies affirmatively the following probes are appropriate.) (a) respect for parents; (b) higher morality (religious sanctions); (c) parent's rights and conveniences; (d) child's immediate safety and welfare; (e) conformity to what is expected; (f) consideration for others; (g) child's best interests in the long run. (If parent replies negatively the following probes are appropriate.) (a) child's right to make own decisions; (b) parent's uncertainty as to what is right; (c) parent's reluctance to enforce own standards.

3. Some parents expect their children to obey immediately when they are directed to do something. Others do not think it's terribly important for a child to obey right away. How do you feel about this? How does your husband (or wife) feel about strict obedience?

4. Do you think that parents should supervise the activities of their children rather closely or do you think that the reins should be held rather loosely?
   (Probes--types of supervision)
   (a) knowing who the child's friends are and censoring the choice of friends; (b) knowing whereabouts of the child--how often does parent check; (c) checking on homework (in the case of school age children); (d) checking to see that parental directives are carried out.

5. Would you say that you have a position about child-raising, a way of bringing up children which helps to guide you? Is this position related to a broader philosophical or religious position?
   (Probe for:)
   (a) permissiveness contrasted with directiveness as a general position; (b) source of values (religious, philosophical, practical day-to-day, welfare of the community, social conformity).

Maturity Demands

6. In what areas, if any, do you think children between 3-6 should be

able to make decisions affecting their own behavior?
(Probe for:)
(a) choice of clothes; (b) choice of bedtime; (c) how much and what kind of food.

7. Do you think that a child should learn to be self-sufficient in an area as soon as he is able?
(Probe for age when:)
(a) child is expected to dress self; (b) child is expected to do some chores.

8. Do you think that a child should be asked to share in the work of the household?
(Probe)
(a) chores expected at age 3, 5, 7 years; (b) chores expected at age of parent's own children.

9. How much would you expect in the way of conscience development from a four-year-old?
(Probe)
(a) injury to another child; (b) not telling the truth.

Communication

10. Do you believe that a child should be allowed to disagree openly with his parents? Should he be encouraged to be forthright about his likes and dislikes about such things as:
(Probe)
(a) what has been prepared for dinner; (b) his parent's appearance; (c) how his parents treat him.

11. Do you believe that parents should express their negative feelings to the child just as he feels them or should he control what and how he communicates to the child?
(Probe)
(a) regarding the conduct of the child; (b) regarding how the actions of the child make him feel; (c) regarding his feelings about the child in general.

Nurturance

12. How about their positive feelings? How openly affectionate should parents be?
(Probes)
(a) appropriateness of physical expression--hugs and kisses; (b) verbal approval.

13. How much do you think parents ought to put themselves out to provide special comforts and pleasures for their children?
(Probes--examples)
(a) to please them with gifts or amusement; (b) to keep them

constructively occupied; (c) to bring them places--e.g., dance class; (d) to read to them, play with them.

14. There are always times when the needs of children seem to conflict with the parent's welfare. Are there times when that happens in your house?
(Probes)
(a) conflicts with father's wishes, such as quiet when he comes home; (b) parent's own need to rest; (c) what should happen when the child wants to do something that the parent does not enjoy.

Performance

1. Could you describe _____ to me? Give me a picture of what he is like?
(Probes)
(a) what parent likes and would like to preserve, dislikes and would like to change about child; (b) what child's own interests and aversions are; (c) child's peer relations; (d) child's behavior with adults.

2. What sorts of things do you talk about with _____?
(Probes)
(a) What kinds of questions does he ask? (b) Do you like to answer his questions? (c) How much of what you say does he understand?

3. Do you allow _____ to argue with you if he disagrees with you when you tell him to do something?
(a) Do you let him speak angrily to you? (b) Do you allow him to use insulting language, call you "stupid" or such names?

Control

4. What do you do to get _____ to behave as you want him to behave? What works best?
(Probes)
(a) send to room; (b) deprive him of privileges such as watching TV; (c) scolding (What kinds of things do you say?); (d) making him feel silly or ashamed; (e) spanking.

5. How much do you try to explain things to him and reason with him?

6. What do you do if he is unusually good? Do you let him know you are pleased? How?
(Probes)
(a) special privileges; (b) material rewards.

7. We would like to get some idea of the sort of rules you have for _____, the sort of things he is allowed to do and the sort of

things he is not allowed to do. What are some of the rules?
(Probes)
(a) bedtime--hour he is to be in bed, leniency about deviating;
(b) making noise in the house; (c) comportment away from home;
(d) time he may spend listening to radio or watching TV; (e) marking on walls and jumping on furniture; (f) quarreling with siblings;
(g) fighting with other children.

8. When _____ has to be disciplined, who usually takes care of it, you or your husband, assuming that both of you are there? How well do you agree on the means of discipline?

9. Do you keep track of exactly where _____ is and what he is doing most of the time or do you let him watch out for himself quite a bit? How often do you check?

10. How often do you tell _____ that you're going to have to punish him and then for some reason you don't follow through? What kinds of things might keep you from following through? If he doesn't do something you ask him to do, perhaps not put his toys away, what do you do then?

11. Would you say that _____ has been a difficult child to raise? Does he tend to be strong-willed or is he easy to manage? Does he ever downright refuse to obey?

Maturity Demands

12. Does _____ have any regular chores to do? How is he about doing them?
(If difficulty is mentioned) How do you go about getting him to do them?

13. Is _____ a child who likes to do things for himself or does he still like to be helped a good deal? Does he dress himself?

14. Does _____ like to visit with next-door neighbours without you? With whom does he play when he's not at kindergarten.

15. Are there any adults _____ is especially fond of besides his parents?
(Probe)
(a) with whom and what kind of relationship?

Nurturance

16. What sorts of things do you most enjoy doing with _____?
(Probes)
(a) what about reading? (b) outdoor games; (c) chatting.

17. Was _____ fun to take care of when he was a baby? Is he fun to be with now?

18. Do you enjoy holding _____ at times? Does he still sit on your lap at times or do you think he is becoming too big?

19. How much time does _____ spend with you? Do you work? (If mother works) How much do you think _____ knows about what you do at work?

20. Is there anything else you would like to tell us about _____?

APPENDIX E

PARENT INTERVIEW SCALES

PARENT INTERVIEW SCALES

1. Strictness: Care of family property

   5 Very strict. Very important for child to be careful about marking or jumping--all furniture, all parts of the house are to be treated carefully--child is not allowed to touch many things.
   1 Permissive. Child may jump on furniture, mark walls, put feet up.

2. Strictness: Neatness

   5 Very strict. Almost never permits mess.
   1 Permissive. Almost no restrictions. Almost no demands for restricting disorder.

3. Strictness: Responsibilities about orderliness

   5 Very strict. Child expected to put one toy away before taking out another.
   1 Permissive. Child has almost no responsibilities for maintaining order.

4. Strictness: Early bedtime (Subtract hours of naptime from the hour of bedtime.)

   5 Between 6 and 7.
   1 After 9:00, or varies at child's pleasure, but after 8:00.

5. Strictness: Bedtime behavior

   5 Very strict. No leeway. Child must be in bed by a certain time, no getting up for company.
   1 Permissive. No particular rules, child goes to bed when sleepy.

6. Strictness: Quarreling with sisters and brothers

   5 Very strict. Parent tries to stop quarreling and fighting immediately.
   1 Permissive. Parent hardly ever interferes in children's quarrels. They are allowed to fight it out, parent does not stop or try to prevent this.

7. Strictness: Aggression toward other children

   5 Very strict. Parent always tries to stop or prevent fights.
   1 Permissive. Parent does not interfere, does not tell child that he should not fight, may consider it a natural part of growing up.

8. Strictness: Television
   (Refers to amount of time allowed and restrictions on choice of program.)

5 Very strict. None watched, or programs allowed are entirely determined by parents.
1 Permissive. TV used at child's own pleasure.

9. Deviation from parent's moral code

5 Insists on rigid, absolutistic adherence to parent's moral code.
1 Totally relativistic, unwilling to state, or devoid of, any stated moral values for child.

10. Demand for immediate or total obedience

5 Very strict. Demands obedience. Punishment for deviation.
1 Does not expect or desire strict obedience. May say he or she thinks one should not expect of a child this young, or that parent can be wrong too and does not have the right to ask child to snap to attention.

11. Negative sanctions: Corporal punishment
(Refers to use of physical pain, mild or severe, as incentive or reinforcement.)

5 Very frequent. Controls deviant behavior of child by use of painful physical punishment or threats thereof which are carried out often enough to carry import.
1 Seldom if ever slaps or spanks, may say he doesn't believe in it.

12. Negative sanctions: Deprivation of privileges (such as desserts, TV, toys, having visitors)

5 Very frequently controls deviant behavior by such deprivations.
1 Seldom if ever uses deprivation of privileges as disciplinary technique, and/or says explicitly she does not believe in it.

13. Negative sanctions: Withdrawal of love
This scale measures the degree to which the parent tries to control the behavior of the child by use of sanctions which threaten the nurturant relationship between parent and child. Statements such as "You don't love me," "You're hurting mother's feelings," "I'm going to have to get another little boy," or "Nobody can love you when you act like that," are relevant cues.

5 Frequent use of withdrawal of love.
1 Avoids using this technique.

14. Negative sanctions: Isolation
Isolation includes sending child to room, sending out of dining room when the rest of the family are at the table, etc., but does not include making child stand in corner or sit in chair if others are present.

5 Frequent. Parent uses and approves of this technique.
1 Avoids using this technique.

15. Negative sanctions: Use of ridicule
Ridicule is defined as those symbolic acts whose intent is to place the child in an undesirable category. Includes derogation, ego deflation, name-calling, most instances of teasing, and sarcasm.

5 Frequent use of ridicule. Evidence that technique is considered effective or used frequently.
1 Avoids using this technique.

16. Negative sanctions: Attempt to provoke a sense of guilt
Guilt is defined as a feeling of lessened personal worth or a sense of anxiety arising from a realization that one has violated ethical, moral, or religious principles.

5 Frequent use of guilt-provoking techniques.
1 Avoids using this technique.

17. Negative sanctions: Frightening the child by screaming, rage, or threats in order to obtain obedience or in order to punish

5 Frequent use of frightening techniques.
1 Avoids using this technique.

18. Positive sanctions as incentive or reinforcer: Praise

5 Parent regularly praises, admires, shows affection for good behavior.
1 Almost never praises as a reward for good behavior.

19. Positive sanctions as incentive or reinforcer: Tangible reward

5 Relies heavily on tangible rewards including desserts, money, to reinforce good behavior.
1 Does not use reward for good behavior; may state a value judgement such as, "I don't want to bribe my child."

20. Parent's feeling of control over child:
Does parent feel that she can control child's behavior when a divergence exists? Disregard intensity of conflict or amount of divergence tolerated.

5 Very great. Parent feels that he or she very readily succeeds in obtaining obedience from child in any specific matter.
1 Almost never feels in control. Parent feels unable to cope with the child in the face of a divergence.

21. Parent's appraisal of his or her general influence on child:

5 Very great. Parent feels that he or she has strong influence

and is a major factor in modifying child's behavior and personality.
1 Parent feels that he or she has almost no influence or effect on the child's development, goals, etc., or that he does not wish to modify child's behavior or influence him at all.

22. Lacks internal conflict about disciplinary procedures

5 Very little if any conflict, sure of self, not concerned about possible harmful effects of disciplinary procedures or lack of them, not guilty about treatment of child.
1 Very great. Parent unsure of self or guilty about techniques in disciplining, distrusts own motivation, the effectiveness of procedures, or fears possible harmful effects on the child.

23. Consistency: Follow-through in discipline

5 Parent almost never threatens punishment or states a directive without follow-through. Following through is cardinal principle.
1 Parent very frequently threatens punishment or states a directive without following through.

24. Consistency: Child-rearing attitudes
This scale indicates an overall estimate of the degree to which the parent's child-rearing attitudes are consistent from time to time. Refers to consistency with self, not with other parent. Consider such variables as attitudes toward aggression in a variety of situations, treatment of dependency, disciplinary policy, enforcement of regulations, etc.

5 Almost always consistent. Attitudes toward child seem always expressed in the same way.
1 Notably inconsistent. Very often says one thing and does another.

25. Consistency: A formulated ideology regarding child training procedures

5 Has clear ideological or religious position which gives unity to child training theory and practices.
1 Lacks ideology. Operates on intuitive or feeling level, can give voice to almost no principles which affect her child training practices.

26. Consistency of discipline: Parental approval of the other parent's methods of disciplining the child (as reported by parent)

5 Parent sees eye to eye or approves of other parent's methods of discipline.
1 Considerable and constant disagreement reported.

27. Control of verbal and/or physical aggression toward parent

5 Child is punished for aggression toward parents; such aggression is not allowed.
1 Parent allows child to hit or insult her almost at will with tacit approval of this form of self-expression; acts as if child has as much right to hit parent, or believes you can't stop child.

28. Directiveness: Restrictions on child's initiative
(To what extent does parent seem to need to exert moment-by-moment control over child's actions?)

5 Very directive. Controls what child does and how he does it at every moment.
1 Completely non-directive, laissez-faire, unconcerned about much of what child does, completely willing to let him do things his own way.

29. Reasons given for restrictions such as they are:
Parent's convenience, ease in running household

5 Of paramount importance. Extremely important.
1 Denied--as a reason.

30. Reason given for restrictions such as they are: Child's welfare

5 Of paramount importance. Extremely important.
1 Denied--as a reason.

31. Reason given for restrictions such as they are:
Conformity with what is socially acceptable

5 Of paramount importance. Extremely important.
1 Denied--as a reason.

32. Reason given for restrictions such as they are: An absolutist moral imperative for religious or traditional reasons ("It is never right to talk back to one's parents.")

5 Of paramount importance. Extremely important.
1 Denied--as a reason.

33. Reason given for restrictions such as they are: An ethical standard which is a part of parent's personal morality

5 Of paramount importance. Extremely important.
1 Denied--as a reason.

34. Maturity demands: household responsibilities
(Consider amount of chores or jobs such as picking up, emptying waste baskets or ashtrays, helping set table, etc.)

5 Very much expected of child. Expects two or three regular chores, "all part of the family", definite expectation of being responsible, working member of family.

1 Almost nothing expected of child.

35. Maturity demands: Conscience

5 Very much expected. Child old enough to acknowledge wrong doing and feel guilt when parental standards have been violated.
1 No expectance of guilt or contrition, child too young.

36. Maturity demands: Permissiveness for exploration and experimentation
(Extent to which child is allowed to do things he's interested in, roam freely. Degree to which parent trusts him to take care of himself.)

5 Almost always permits child to try anything, even at much inconvenience to parent, allows child to explore and experiment freely.
1 Very restrictive. Parent does not allow anything likely to be time-consuming or risky, attempts at experimentation usually interfered with, parent suspicious of anything new that child may try.

37. Maturity demands: Rewarding of self-sufficiency
(Extent to which parent feels it is important that child learns to do things for himself, gives approval for such behavior and teaches self-help.)

5 Parent very pleased by signs of ability to help self, rewards such behavior by approval or other names, cues child to help self.
1 Parent doesn't consider such behavior important, is unaware of this sort of behavior, or discourages it.

38. Maturity demands: Does not reward dependency
(Extent to which parent rewards child's dependent acts, complies with his demands, gives help when child solicits.)

5 Does not reward. Tells child to do it himself. Suggests some alternative behavior.
1 Generally rewards dependency. Tries always to comply with dependent demands. Will stop what she is doing.

39. Maturity demands: Intellectual achievement expected
(Take into account the level of behavior the parent expects in relation to child's ability regardless of whether the child succeeds in meeting this level.)

5 Very high.
1 Very low.

40. Permission for independence: Encourages contact with other adults
(Extent to which parent is willing to allow child to form attach-

ments to adults other than herself such as nursery school teacher, a neighbor, a housekeeper.)

5 Encourages such attachments.
1 Actively discourages attachments to adults other than herself.

41. Permission for independence: As much as possible introduces child to new experiences

5 Very often introduces child to such experiences.
1 Almost never makes the effort to introduce child to novel experiences.

42. Communications: Attentiveness to child's efforts to communicate when it is child's turn to be heard

5 Very attentive. Once parent agrees to listen to child he gives full and careful attention to child's efforts to communicate.
1 Very inattentive. Parent seldom if ever focuses completely on what child is saying; parent seldom if ever responds in such a way that the child feels that he has been fully heard.

43. Communication: Parent's willingness to express negative feelings to child about his conduct

5 Parent believes that it is important to show anger or disapproval openly to child.
1 Parent strongly disapproves of expressing anger or disapproval openly to child.

44. Tolerance of verbal protest:
(When child gives reasons for disagreement without personal vindictiveness or defiance.)

5 Child is encouraged to dissent if he has reasons.
1 Protest not allowed; child is to do what parents say without protest.

45. Consults with child about formation of regulations

5 Always tries to consult with child, even when much inconvenience and some risk to the child's welfare are involved.
1 Does not consult with child or believe in doing so.

46. Use of reasoning:
Include explaining, describing consequences of actions, listening to child's arguments, and trying to give an answer on the merits of the case. Evidence would be remarks such as "He is old enough now so that he understands when I explain things to him".

5 Very frequent use of reasoning.
1 Almost never used reasoning. Explicit evidence that it is not

used. ("It does not do any good to reason with him.")

47. Individual character of child perceived:
(Accuracy and clarity with which child is perceived, degree to which parent can state similarities and differences between child and siblings, child and others. This question requires a judgement by the rater based on the parent's remarks.)

5 Parent very perceptive. Child is seen very much as a person in his own right.
1 Parent distorts, fails to perceive, sterotypes child's characteristics.

48. Warmth: Presence of a loving relationship
(Measure presence of warmth, rather than presence or absence of hostile feelings.)

5 Unusually warm and loving. Enjoys child's company, entertained by him, expresses pleasure in child's person, appearance, performance.
1 Relationship is cool, lacking in affection.

49. Warmth: Demonstrativeness

5 Unusually demonstrative.
1 Entirely undemonstrative.

50. Warmth: Approval

5 Unusually approving. Thinks child is wonderful, unusually praise-worthy, admires and respects child immensely.
1 Generally disapproving. Thinks little of child's ability or personal qualities.

51. Warmth: Absence of hostility
(This variable should be rated without regard to the presence of warmth. Note statement indicating resentment, annoyance, or dislikes of child.)

5 Very little, if any, expressed. Almost no evidence of resentment, annoyance, or condemnation.
1 Unusually hostile. Obviously resents child, is annoyed by many aspects of his behavior, is disapproving.

52. Warmth: Empathy

5 Very empathic. Parent feels very close to child, has almost complete understanding of his feelings and view of the world, seems to be able to see things through the child's eyes.
1 Very distant, almost complete lack of empathic understanding, child seen as a very separate or different sort of creature.

53. Warmth: Sympathy

5 Very sympathetic. Feels deeply for child if he is ill, physically hurt, or rebuffed, and expresses these feelings to child.
1 Very unsympathetic. Irritated at child when he is ill or in need of nurturance.

54. Conscientiousness: Keeping track of the child

5 Very aware of child's whereabouts. Whereabouts of child constantly on her mind. Keeps track of child. Child must be in sight or earshot or whereabouts known at all times.
1 Unconcerned about child's whereabouts. Practically never checks. Lets child take care of self, does not worry when child is out of sight or earshot or exact whereabouts of child are not known.

55. Conscientiousness: Willingness to sacrifice <u>own</u> needs to those of children
(Do not include the child's whims or fancies. Do not include conflicts of interest of subject's needs with those of other children or spouse.)

5 Almost always considers child's needs first. Parent states that he or she is always available if needed by child. Plans outings, arranges matters so that child is pleasantly occupied, brings him to special classes, cooks food he likes, even at considerable inconvenience to self.
1 Parent's interests and needs come first.

56. Conscientiousness: Acceptance of responsibility for child's future development and present welfare

5 Accepts full responsibility. Feels that child's welfare and future success is a major responsibility of its parents and that it is their job to guide child at all times; assure future success.
1 Markedly casual and nonchalant about child, at times neglects child. Says that what will be will be, and that child has to take care of himself.

APPENDIX F

HOME VISIT SEQUENCE ANALYSIS

CATEGORIES

HOME VISIT SEQUENCE ANALYSIS CATEGORIES

1. Type I: Control sequences, parent-initiated

Participant code

MS	Mother to subject
FS	Father to subject
MG	Mother to sister
MB	Mother to brother
FG	Father to sister
FB	Father to brother

Message code

K	Factual knowledge about the world
D	Cognitive insight into cause and effect relations
I	Alteration of immediate behavior

Control rating for initiating act
Degree of power

1	Directive	
	1	Directive without reason
	1X	Directive with reason
2	Persuasive	
	2X	Persuasion with realistic reason added
	2Y	Indirect manipulation with source of power disguised
	2Z	Appeal made to social or religious mores binding parent and child
3	Coercive	
	3	Coercive without reason
	3X	Coercive with reason

Kind of incentive

a	Positive - parent promises approval, etc., contingent upon a given action
b	Negative - parent threatens disapproval, etc., contingent upon a given action

Control-outcome rating
Interpersonal maneuvers preceding compliance

✓1	Child complies immediately without a second parental demand
✓2	Parent repeats directive without increasing power
✓3	Child does not comply immediately, parent increases power
✓4	Parent meets some of child's objections
✓5	None of the above conditions exist; child complies

Interpersonal maneuvers preceding noncompliance

X1	Parent repeats directive without increasing power
X2	Parent increases power and still child does not comply
X3	Parent meets some of child's objections
X4	Parent does not persist - evades control conflict
X5	Parent does not persist - respects child's decision
X6	None of the above; child does not comply

2. Type II: Control sequences, child initiated

Participant code

SM	Subject to mother
SF	Subject to father
GM	Sister to mother
BM	Brother to mother
GF	Sister to father
BF	Brother to father

Message code

S	Seeks support, nurturance or (S) seeks attention
K	Seeks information
D	Demands right to make a choice or act autonomously
P	Seeks to involve parent in play
I	Other demand

Control rating for initiating act

1	Minimum - child asks
2	Medium - child begs or pleads
3	Maximum - child demands by screaming or whining persistently

Parent reaction
Interpersonal maneuvers preciding compliance

✓1	Parent complies willingly
✓2	Parent complies reluctantly in response to child's request
✓3	Parent promises to comply in future and does
✓4	Parent complies after realistic argument with child

Interpersonal maneuvers preceding noncompliance

X1	Parent refuses, child does not continue demanding
X2	Parent refuses and continues to refuse although child continues to demand
X3	Parent refuses giving child a reality congruent reason or offers an alternative
X4	Parent refuses and employs threat or negative sanction to quiet child
X5	Parent evades child's request or statement

Child satisfaction

✓	Child expresses satisfaction with parent's response
X	Child expresses dissatisfaction by contunued demands or irritability
0	Child satisfaction not rated

3. Type III: Noncontrol sequences, parent-initiated

Participant code

MS	Mother to subject
FS	Father to subject
MFS	Mother and father to subject
MG or MB	Mother to sister or brother
FG or FB	Father to sister or brother

Message code

S	Support or nurturance
R	Positive reinforcement offered for action completed
P	Negative reinforcement imposed for action completed
K	Exchange of information
I	Child's social skills are advanced
D	Child chooses form of action or makes a decision after parent-child discussion
Pl	Play
C	Conversation
O	Other, including simple conversation

Child satisfaction

✓	Child expresses satisfaction with parent's response
X	Child expresses dissatisfaction by continued demands or irritability
0	Child satisfaction not rated

APPENDIX G

HOME VISIT SEQUENCE

ANALYSIS CODING FORM

SEQUENCE ANALYSIS CODING FORM

TYPE I SEQUENCE					TYPE II SEQUENCE						TYPE III SEQUENCE			
Seq. No.	Parti-cipants	Mes-sage	Con. Rating Init. Act / Pow. Inc.	Control Outcome	Seq. No.	Parti-cipants	Mes-sage	Con. Rating Init. Act / Pow. Inc.	Par. React.	Satis.	Seq. No.	Parti-cipants	Mes-sage	Satis.

APPENDIX H

WEIGHTS FOR COMBINING

INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES (HVSA)

WEIGHTS FOR COMBINING INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES

(HVSA)

Control	
Variable A	0.397
Variable B	0.604
Variable C	0.752
Variable D	0.485
Variable E	0.737
Maturity Demands	
Variable F	-0.170
Variable G	-0.699
Variable H	-0.364
Variable I	0.823
Communication	
Variable J	0.794
Variable K	0.444
Variable L	0.887
Nurturance	
Variable M	0.770
Variable N	0.676
Variable O	0.691

APPENDIX I

AUTONOMOUS ACHIEVEMENT

MOTIVATION TEST

AUTONOMOUS ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION TEST

Basic Instructions

In this study you are the experimenter and your child is the subject. Please read this brief instruction carefully and upon finishing it read the individual instructions to the tasks as well before you begin the experiment. While reading allow your child to get used to the setting, to explore the room, or play with the toys, etc..

There are three tasks in this study for you to do. All three are very much similar, in fact they are almost identical in the procedures and the rules involved. The only main difference between the three tasks is the materials used. The first task uses "snap-it" beads, put together in a pre-arranged form to be copied by the child. The second task has sheets of paper with pictures pasted on the front. Here the child is asked to recall the pictures he saw. The third task involves copying some designs.

The main principle in this study is that you are to present the individual items in each task in a pre-arranged order, ask the child to make one like it, recall what he saw, or draw the model. You continue until two failures at which time you take the first item, the last success, the first failure, and the last failure, pointing out the nature of difficulties involved and ask the child to choose one he would like to try again.

Materials and verbal instructions follow. You may either read the actual verbal instructions to your child while doing the experiment or you may read the instructions over a few times, get the essence of the tasks and limits involved and work on your own using a methodology of your own.

The whole study should take about twenty minutes to complete. You could take five minutes for the reading of the instructions and five minutes for each of the three tasks in the study.

Task 1: Instructions

Materials. To your right under the cover you find some "snap-it" beads put together in a pre-arranged form and sequence to serve as stimuli or models. As you note, they vary in color, shape, and the number of beads in the sequences ranging from 2 to 9.

To your left there is an assortment of beads in a box for your child to make designs the same or similar to the models you will present. After the presentation and comparison of the individual models and the child's work replace your models intact into the box to your right and take apart the child's beads and replace them in his box.

Verbal instructions. The first thing we're going to do is with these beads. You see they are all different colors. Also they are different otherwise. Some of them are round, others have lines like an accordion, and still others look like lanterns. Now we can put them together and make different things out of them. This is the game: I will show you something put together already. You will look at it carefully, because I am going to hide it behind my back and then you will make one just like mine. And then we will see whether yours looks like mine.

(Show Item 1 and say)

Look at this carefully.

(After 5 seconds hide it behind your back and say)

Now make one just like mine.

(Wait for the child to show his work. If it is the same as the model continue to the next set of beads. If his work is wrong point out the difference between his product and the model. Afterward continue to the next set of beads until the child fails twice at which time you take the first model, the model of the last success, of the first failure and the last failure. Pointing to the individual models say)

Now let's make one more string of the beads. You may try one of these things. Remember, this first one was very easy for you; this one was not so easy, but you got it right; this one was hard for you, and this last one was very hard for you. Now, which one would you like to try again?

(After the child chooses let him try after which you should continue to the next task.)

Task 2: Instructions

Materials. Eight sheets of paper with two, three, five, seven, nine, thirteen, sixteen, and twenty pictures of readily identifiable objects pasted on them.

Verbal Instructions. Now let's play a different game. On the other side of each paper there are pictures of different things. When I turn the paper over, you look at the pictures carefully, and try to remember them, because soon I am going to turn the paper so you can't see the pictures. Then you tell me what pictures you saw. Okay? Let's look at this paper first.

(Point to the pictures idividually on the paper, say)

This is a _____.

(Let the child finish the sentence. If he hesitates, supply the

name. After he has named all the objects, say)

Now look carefully, because soon I am going to turn the paper over.

(After five seconds do so.)

Now tell me what you saw.

(After the child finished his listing of pictures turn the card over for the child's evaluation. If he failed to name all the pictures point out the misses. Continue to the next paper and say)

Now let's try this one.

(After two failures show the child the first item, the last success, the first failure, and the second failure and say)

Let's try one more of these again. Remember, these pictures were easy for you to remember; this one was not so easy, but you got it right. This third one was hard for you, and this last one was very hard for you. Which one would you like to try again?

(After the child chooses, let him try as before and continue to the next task.)

Task 3: Instructions

Materials. Blank paper, pencils and china marker, and seven designs to draw. The designs are arranged in the order of presentation.

Verbal instructions. (You take the top card and present it to the child to copy. Before the presentation of the first card you may say)

Here is something children like to do when they are learning about things. Children who are your age learn to draw, make pictures, and all kinds of things with crayon and pencil on paper. I would like to see what kinds of things you do with pencil on paper.

(Show the first model and say)

Can you draw this one? Try to make one just like mine.

(After the child finished and presents his product compare it with the model. If his work is acceptable continue to the next card. If you consider his work unacceptable indicate this and point out the mistakes. Afterward continue until the child has failed twice at which point you take the first card, the last success, the first failure, and the last failure and pointing to the individual cards say)

Now let's make one more drawing. You may try one of these that you have done. Remember, this one was quite easy for you. This one was not so easy, but you got it right. This one was hard for you, and

this one was very hard for you. Now, which one of these drawings would you like to try again?

(As before, after the child chooses a card let him try to draw it again.)

End of your task. Thank you for your cooperation.

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